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ART. I.—*A Journey from Madras, through the Countries of Mysore, Canara, and Malabar; performed under the Orders of the Most Noble the Marquis Wellesley, Governor General of India, for the express Purpose of investigating the State of Agriculture, Arts, and Commerce; the Religion, Manners and Customs; the History, Natural and Civil, and Antiquities, in the Dominions of the Rajah of Mysore; and the Countries acquired by the Honourable East India Company, in the late and former Wars, from Tippoo Sultaun. By Francis Buchanan, M.D. Fellow of the Royal Society, and of the Society of Antiquaries of London; Fellow of the Asiatic Society of Calcutta; and in the Medical Service of the Honourable Company, of the Bengal Establishment. Published under the Authority and Patronage of the Honourable the Directors of the East India Company. Illustrated by a Map and numerous other Engravings. In three Volumes. 4to. 6l. 6s. Cadell and Davies.*

IN the introduction to these splendid volumes, Dr. Buchanan has inserted a copy of the instructions which he received from the governor general relative to the object of his journey. The primary object of his attention, was to be the agriculture of the country; under which head his enquiries were to be directed to the esculent vegetables, the modes of culture, the implements of husbandry, &c.; the different breeds of cattle, the size of the farms, the nature of their tenures, the price of labour, &c. The next object of his attention was to be those natural productions of the country, which are made use of in arts, manufactures, or medicine; and particularly those which are articles of external commerce. The state of manufactures, the situation of the manufacturers, the climate

and seasons of Mysore, the nature of the forests, the condition, &c. of the inhabitants, and the diversity of sects and tribes, were not to be forgotten in the extent of his research. These instructions Dr. Buchanan appears to us to have executed with the utmost diligence, fidelity, and skill; and he has related what he saw and heard in a perspicuous and unaffected style. His journey contains a great diversity of matter, which will be interesting to the geographer, the statesman, and the merchant; but it is not among those books of travels which will be amusing to the general reader. There is too much sameness in the details. The author passes from one town or village to another, through his extensive route, describing, as he goes, the state of the crops, the modes of culture, &c. &c. But the productions of one district, and the processes of husbandry, &c. bear too much affinity to those of another to admit much variety in the description; and we are told of the crops of rice, ragy, &c. &c. with the modes of culture, till the repetition palls, and the attention flags. This is not the fault of the writer, but the necessary consequence of the task which he had to perform, and which he has performed well according to the letter of his instructions. In the different points of his extensive route he had to make the same enquiries, which, in general, produced no great diversity of results. Utility rather than amusement is the characteristic of his journey; and in point of practical usefulness and solid information, there are not many travellers who occupy a higher rank than Dr. Buchanan. The greater part of his journey consists of agricultural and commercial information; but this is interspersed with some curious details respecting the manners of the inhabitants, particularly the opinions and worship of the numerous casts into which the Hindus are divided. The narrow limits which we are obliged to assign to any one article, will not permit us to give a complete analysis of the contents of these volumes; but we shall exhibit some of the most interesting parts.

Dr. Buchanan left Madras on the 23d of April 1800. He proceeded through Candaheru, Saym-brum-bacum, Sri Permaturu, Conjeveram, Arcot, Vellore, Palingonda, Satgudam Pedda Naikena Durga, Vencataghery, Baydamungulum, Walurn, Catcolli, Taycolum, Bangalore, to Seringapatam, where he arrived on the 17th of May. In some parts of this journey he commends the goodness of the roads. He observed many resting places for porters, which charity had raised by the way, numerous inns or choultries, where the poorest may, without expence, find shelter from

the inclemencies of the weather ; and where the richer traveller may procure for himself and for his cattle at least the necessaries of life ; tanks or reservoirs of water, for irrigating the land, and for supplying drink to the inhabitants. Among the asses, which are a common animal throughout the Carnatic, he observed some which were as white as milk. These animals are kept only by those classes who are of low cast ; for the higher orders spurn at the use of this harmless quadruped, with which they connect the idea of singular impurity. Among a wretched tribe called the *Chensu Carirs*, he found that the white ant, *termes*, was a common article of food. These people have no clothing but the leaves of trees ; but those, who appear in the cultivated country, have a small slip of cloth to cover their nakedness. Near Arcot he met the Mussulman women riding on bullocks, and enveloped in white veils so as to conceal both their features and shape. In the Carnatic, Dr. B. informs us that most of the Brahmans follow secular professions. They act as officers of revenue, judges, innkeepers, farmers ; but are not fond of toil, and never put the hand to the plough. The proper duty of a Brahman is religious meditation, but the declension of charity, or rather the wane of superstition, obliges many of them to engage in the offices of social life. While our author was at the village of Mundium, he witnessed a flight of locusts, which was about three miles in length, one hundred yards in width, and fifty feet high. They passed on in a close body, and but few stragglers were left behind. The noise of this mass of insects had some resemblance to the sound of a cataract. The marches of Lord Cornwallis from Bangalore to Seringapatam may still be traced by the bones of the cattle belonging to his army ; thousands of which perished through hunger and fatigue. At Seringapatam, the rude structure of the bridge which connects the island, on which the capital stands, with the main land, evinces the small progress which the arts have made in Mysore. It is not formed of regular arches, but longitudinal stones are laid on square pillars of granite, which are raised above the highest rise of the water, and let into the rock below. The fort of Seringapatam, in which Tippoo lost his empire and his life, was constructed in the old Indian style. One wall was heaped upon another ; and the tyrant was too self-conceited on this occasion to consult even the French engineers whom he had in his dominions. Though the place was taken by storm, yet few of those enormities were committed by the soldiery which are common on such occasions. Some of the followers

indeed of the camp stole into the town, and spent the night in plunder; but though many were beaten or threatened to force a discovery of their property, but little blood was shed. 'The women on this occasion,' says the author, 'went out into the streets and stood there all night in large groups, I suppose with a view of preventing any insult by their exposed situation; few men being capable of committing brutality in public.' The streets of Seringapatam are close and ill ventilated; the houses hot and inconvenient. Tippoo had one mode of levying money on his subjects which bears some resemblance to the forced loans and *voluntary contributions* of European governments; but with this difference, that Tippoo, at least in this instance, appears to have made some return for his exactions. This ingenious imperial financier, instead of cramming his palace with bed-chamber lords and the rest of the living paraphernalia of western royalty, employed three sides of the building as warehouses for goods, which his agents were ordered to use a little *gentle* compulsion to induce his subjects to purchase at a price above their real value. The following circumstances are not only characteristic of despotism in general, but of Eastern despotism in particular. The entrance to the hall in which Tippoo wrote was through a strong narrow passage in which four tygers were chained. The bedchamber of the Sultan was behind the hall, with which it communicated by a door and two windows, and was closed on every other side.

'The door was strongly secured on the inside, and a close iron grating defended the windows. The Sultan, lest any body should fire upon him while in bed, slept in a hammock, which was suspended from the roof by chains, in such a situation as to be invisible through the windows. In the hammock were found a sword and a pair of loaded pistols.'

Can any thing be more descriptive of that hell of inquietude, of distrust and fear, which harbours in the heart of tyranny? And who is there among the most wretched of the sons of men, with a particle of reflection, who would exchange the most abject privacy for a crown on such terms as these? The ladies of the Sultan, and of his father Hyder Ally, who with their slaves or attendants amount to about 600, have been preserved inviolate in the Zenana; and as they have from early youth been shut up in that place, none of them seem desirous of leaving their confinement. Tippoo was, in his way, like the late Emperor Joseph, a great projector. Both paid little regard to the prejudices of their subjects; and both wanted constancy to execute what they



had designed. As Tippoo was violent and capricious, his government was a constant succession of new arrangements. While he was indulging only his own lust of tyrannical innovation, he probably thought that he was studying only the good of his subjects, and his self-love made him believe (and perhaps all the Neros and Caligulas of antient and modern times may do the same) that he understood in what that good consisted better than they did themselves. Indeed, so confident was Tippoo that he was a perfect adept in the science of government, that he wrote a book on the subject for the instruction of his successors. We should like to peruse this tract; and we have little doubt that we should find Tippoo as good a reasoner as James I. on the divine rights of kings. Though restless activity was the characteristic of Tippoo, yet, whether from fear or policy, he kept himself very much secluded from his subjects, and confined the administration to Meer Saduc, whom few prime ministers have ever exceeded in avarice and cruelty. But the agents of tyranny have not always experienced a fate, which so well accords with their desert; for when the capital of Seringapatam was taken by storm, Meer Saduc was killed by some of his master's guards in attempting to escape through the gate. 'His corpse,' says the writer of this journey, 'lay for some time exposed to the insults of the populace, none of whom passed without spitting on it, or loading it with a slipper.'

'In this country,' (the Mysore) the author tells us, 'that the division of the people into *right* and *left hand sides*, or *Eddagai* and *Ballagai*, is productive of more considerable effects than at any place' which he had seen in India. We shall extract his enumeration of the tribes or casts which belong both to the left hand side and the right.

'The tribes or casts comprehended in the Eddagai, or left hand side, are nine, comprehending, 1. The Cubidinava, or blacksmiths. 2. Badiga, carpenters. 3. Cunsugaru, coppersmiths. 4. Cul'badiga, masons. 5. Axala, gold and silversmiths. 2. Bheri chitty, merchants, who pretend to be of the Vaisya cast. 3. Devanga, a class of weavers. 4. Heganigaru, oil makers, who use two oxen in their mills. 5. Gollur, or Golawanlu, who transport money. 6. Paliwanlu. 7. Palawanlu, two tribes of cultivators who are not of Karnataka origin. 8. Baydaru, hunters. 9. Madigaru, tanners or shoemakers. The Panchala command the whole party; and the Madigaru, in all disputes, form the most active combatants; on which account, as their own name is reproachful, they are commonly called the Eddagai cast, as if they were the only persons belonging to it.

'The casts forming the Ballagai, or right hand side, are eighteen in number :

1. Banisigaru, who are of many trades, as well as many religions.

The two most conspicuous divisions are,

1. Panchum Banisigaru, who are traders, and wear the linga.

2. Teliga Banisigaru who worship Vishnu. 2. Wocligaru, cultivators of the Sûdra cast, and of Karnâtaca extraction.

3. Jotiphana, oilmakers, who use one bullock in the mill.

4. Rungaru, calico-printers, and tailors.

5. Ladaru, a kind of Mussulman traders, who are followed by all the artificers of the same religion.

6. Guserati, merchants of Guzerat.

7. Camatigaru, persons who are really of the Vaisya ast.

8. Jainaru, worshippers of Jain.

9. Curubaru, shepherds, blanket weavers, and cultivators.

10. Cumbaru, potters.

11. Agasaru, washermen.

12. Besta, palankeen-bearers.

13. Padma Shalayvaru, a kind of weavers.

14. Naindaru, barbers.

15. Uparu, persons who dig tanks, and build rough walls.

16. Chitragaru, painters.

17. Goallaru, keepers of cows and buffaloes.

18. Walliaru. The people called parriars at Madras, who form the active part of the right hand side, and are commonly called Ballagai, their own name being disgraceful. The Panchum Banisigaru are the leaders of this division.'

The origin of these two grand divisions of the casts into the *right* and *left hand sides*, is, as might be expected, involved in fable: but both parties dispute the point of pre-eminence with all the zeal of ambition, and all the rancour of faction. The right-hand side pretend that they have the exclusive privilege of using twelve pillars in the *pundal*, or shed, under which their marriage ceremonies are performed; and that their adversaries in their processions have no right to ride on horseback, nor to carry a flag painted with the figure of Hanumanta. The left-hand side allege as an argument for the post of precedence, that they were placed by the goddess Hali on the left, which is the place of honour in Hindostan. We perceive that the Hindus can dispute about trifles as well as the Christians; and even among the latter, who have been illumined by a light from above, there is a

mass of bigots, who, as well as the former, want to be taught that TO LOVE GOD, AND TO DO AS WE WOULD BE DONE BY, IS THE WHOLE DUTY OF MAN. Loss of cast is the most terrible punishment which can be inflicted upon a Hindu.

The author informs us, that the country surrounding Seringapatam was marked by the traces of desolation, occasioned partly by invading armies, and in a greater degree by the capricious tyranny of Tippoo. The temples, villages, and dams, were laid in ruins, while the despot had desolated a great extent of country for the pleasures of the chace. But, under the new government, a better system had already been adopted, and culture was beginning to efface the ravages of despotism and of war. Throughout India rice, which may be called the staple food of that part of the world, is sown in three different modes, which occasion three different kinds of cultivation. In the first mode, the seed is sown dry in the field where it is to remain; in the second, it is made to germinate before it is sown; and in the third, it is first sown in a close plot of ground, and afterwards transplanted into the field. The farmers have two crops of rice on their wet grounds; the crop, which grows during the rainy season, and which is reckoned the best, is called Hainu; the other, which grows in the dry season, is called Caru, and is produced on land which may be watered by artificial irrigation. About a week before the rice is fit for reaping; the water is let off, that the ground may dry. The grain is always preserved in the husk; or as the English term it, in *paddy*. This *paddy* will keep four years without being unfit for use. There are two ways of making *paddy* into rice; one by boiling it previously to beating, and the other by beating alone. In the country of Seringapatam Dr. Buchanan calculated the crops of rice on the watered land at more than 31 bushels per acre in a favourable season and soil; but he computed the average produce at 19½ bushels. The ragy, or *cynosurus corocanus*, is the most important product of the *dry field*, as it constitutes the sustenance of the lower ranks, who reckon it the most wholesome and invigorating food; but Dr. B. says, that his Bengal and Madras servants, who had been used to live upon rice, looked upon ragy as execrable aliment. In p. 96 of his first volume, the author very accurately describes the planting and culture of the sugar cane, in the Mysore, and the same subject is several times repeated in the course of his work. The culture of the *harulu*, or *ricinus palma christi* of Linnæus, is described in p. 109, as well as the process for extracting the oil. This oil, which we call castor, is in Seringapatam commonly used for the lamp. It is also employed medicinally, and the sudras and lower

casts apply it as an unction to the head, in maladies which they ascribe to febrile heat. The persons who sell milk are commonly called gavelies or cabadies, who are of four distinct tribes. Near Seringapatam the buffalo only is kept; as that animal retains its milk longer, and gives it in greater quantity than the cow. 'During the Sultan's government, there was great difficulty in procuring pasture, as the whole was reserved for his horses and deer. At present there is plenty, and the buffalo-keepers pay nothing for it.' We are happy to find that the subversion of Tippoo's tyranny has been productive of such favourable consequences. Though the buffalo of India is the same with that of Europe, yet the author tells us that he has not observed any good description or figure of that animal in our books of natural history; and he moreover says that the figure and description of the naked buffalo in Pennant's History of Quadrupeds, bear no resemblance whatever to any variety of this animal which he ever saw. The sheep of the Mysore are shorn twice a year, and yield about half a pound of coarse wool, which is manufactured into a kind of blanket. 'A good wether sells for  $1\frac{1}{2}$  rupee (2s. 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.), an old ewe for one rupee (2s. 2d.); the fleeces of seven sheep sell for one *fanam* (8d.). In general, they are confined at night in a pen contiguous to the shepherd's hut; but in the ploughing season they are lent out to the farmers, to be folded on their fields.' Tippoo almost entirely exterminated the breed of hogs from the vicinity of his capital; but, since his death, this useful animal is beginning to reappear. The native breed of horses in the Mysore, as in most parts of India, is a small, ugly, vicious poney. Tippoo and his father endeavoured, without much success, to introduce a better breed. In the work on the husbandry of Bengal, it is remarked that little or no attention was paid to manuring the soil. But Dr. B. says, that, in this part of the Mysore, 'every farmer has a dunghill;' and that 'the farmers who are within two miles of the city, send bullocks with sacks, and procure from the *Halal*, or sweepers, the ashes, ordure, and other soil of the town.' The heat of the climate appears to supersede the use of lime, which is never employed as a manure. 'The religion of the natives is a powerful obstacle in the way of agriculture. The higher ranks of society being excluded from animal food, no attention will of course be paid to fattening cattle; and without that, what would our agriculture in England be worth?' Fuel, which is a dear article at Seringapatam, is chiefly composed of cow-dung, made into cakes; which, from the veneration paid to that animal, is considered as one of the purest substances that can be

employed. Every herd of cattle is attended by women, and those often of high rank or cast, who with their hands gather up the dung and carry it home in baskets. It is then made into cakes, and stuck upon the walls to dry. Every morning numerous females are seen conveying fresh supplies of this fuel to the capital.

The Gurus, or heads of particular sects among the Hindus, who preside in all matters connected with religion, possess a considerable degree of sacerdotal power.

‘Small delinquencies they punish by pouring cow-dung and water on the head of the guilty person, by fire, and by whipping. For great offences they excommunicate the culprit, which is done by shaving his head. This excludes a man from all society, even from that of his nearest connections; for his very wife would incur a similar punishment by giving him any assistance. The excommunication may be removed by the guru; in which case he purifies the repentant sinner by a copious draught of cow’s urine.’

At p. 182, v. i, the author gives a descriptive account of the different species of forest trees that are found in the hilly tract of the Mysore. Among these, that which is of the most value in commerce is the *santalum album*, or sandal-wood of the English merchants. The common size of the tree at the root is, we are told, when it is cut, about nine inches in diameter; but it has been known to arrive at the circumference of three cubits! ‘Not above a third of the diameter of the tree is of value; the remainder is white wood totally devoid of smell.’ The bottom of the stem under ground and immediately above the division into roots is the most valuable part of the tree. In estimating the value of the wood the merchants are governed by the strength of the smell. The bamboo is divided into two kinds, one of which is more solid than the other; but the hollow sort is more useful for common purposes; and the solid is admirably adapted for the shafts of spears.

From Seringapatam the author returned to Bangalore, where he remained for several days. At this place he gives a copious enumeration of the various articles of commerce, with the prices, which he collected from the principal traders of the place. The trade of Bangalore, which was formerly very great, is said to have been ruined by the impolitic prohibitions and the oppressive exactions of Tippoo; but it is beginning to revive under the protection of the British government. The betel-nut constitutes the principal article of trade at Bangalore. Black pepper is next to betel the most common article of commerce. As the Hindus seldom use tailors, but wrap round their bodies the cloth as it



comes from the weaver, the pieces are made of different sizes to adapt them to the dress of the natives, and are called by different names according to the purposes for which they are employed. Thus 'the cloth which the women wrap round their haunches, and then throw over their heads and shoulders like a veil, is from 14 to 17 cubits long, and from 2 to 2 $\frac{1}{4}$  cubits wide. It is called *Shiray*.'—'Men wrap round them a cloth called *Dotra*, which is from 10 to 12 cubits long, and from 2 $\frac{1}{4}$  to 2 $\frac{1}{2}$  cubits broad, &c.' Dr. B. assembled at different times some of the principal persons of the most distinguished casts, and he has given a very copious account of their different customs from the information which they furnished. We have not room to extract the whole of this description; but shall select a few particulars. Most of the casts seem to be allowed to have a plurality of wives. These are purchased by some, and obtained without purchase by others. Marriage is, in few instances, permitted to the women after the signs of puberty appear. Most of the casts contain a portion who dedicate themselves to what they call the service of the gods; that is, chiefly to idleness and devotion. Among the *Pancham Banijigas*, these religionists are called *Jangamas*, &c. The descendants of a Jangama never engage in any industrious occupation, but subsist on the alms of the faithful, who have notice of their approach by the number of small bells which are tied to their legs, the sounds of which are designed to elicit the contributions of the charitable. The women of the *Jelinga Benijigaru* cast were formerly buried alive with their deceased husbands; but this practice has fallen into disuse. Though the men among most of the casts are not limited in the number of their wives, yet instances of adultery are said to be rare, at least among the women; for among the men it is hardly considered an offence.

'The weavers learn to read and write accounts and letters on business; but, in this country they are reckoned very mean accomplishments. A plain composition in prose, and consisting merely of common sense, is looked upon as a kind of reading beneath the dignity of a man of learning, who ought always to compose in poetry; and the more obscure he renders his meaning by allegories, the better.'

As the dereliction of a life of active usefulness, for the indolent torpor of ceremonial piety, is what is principally thought to add dignity to character, the people of the country in general are remarkable for that hypocritical grimace which all false pretenders to sanctity assume.

'Owing to the custom of polygamy, very few of the women in this country live in a state of celibacy, except young widows of the higher casts, who never can marry again, and who are very numerous; for matches between old men and mere children are common. The comfort of having children however is in general all the pleasure that married women of rank in India enjoy. Where polygamy prevails, love is little known; or, if it does possess a man, he is generally captivated by some artful dancing girl, and not by any of his wives; all of whom were married before they could either excite or feel that passion.' V. i. p. 260.

The Brahmans are separated into two great divisions, one of which occupies the countries towards the south, the other towards the north. Pride is equally characteristic of both; but some differences are observed in their manners and institutions, on which probably one division founds its right to despise the other. The women of the southern Brahmans are allowed to appear in public; this is a strong ground of reproach with their brethren of the north. The southern Brahman cannot eat animal food, or drink spirituous liquors, without losing cast. 'All those who have been married, are burned after their death, and their wives ought to accompany them on the pile;' but instances of this practice are said to be extremely rare, except in the province of Bengal. A widow is not permitted to take a second husband; and the female who is not married before the signs of puberty appear, is ever afterwards considered as impure. Medicine, which in all countries is too much in the hands of ignorant and impudent quacks, is in India practised by the tribe of *Pacanat Jogies*, or *Jangali*, whose business it is to collect, prepare, sell, and exhibit, the plants used in medicine. These charlatans go up and down the street, crying out the names of diseases, and the specifics which they pretend to possess. The cast of *Asagura*, *Asagas*, or washermen, worship a god called *Bhūma Dēvaru*, who is represented by a shapeless stone. Him they endeavour to render propitious to their labours by offerings of fruit; and they sacrifice animals to *Ubbay*, whom Dr. B. supposes to mean *steam*. 'The washerman of every village, whose office is hereditary, washes all the farmers' clothes; and, according to the number of persons in each family, receives a regulated proportion of the crop.—Both men and women wash,' &c.

The tree on which the lac insect (which furnishes the beautiful red dye) feeds, is called the *Jala*. Those trees of this species, which Dr. B. observed, were small, not exceeding eight or ten feet in height, for their growth is kept

down by the insect ; but, when left to itself, it grows to a large size. When the lac is ripe, ' it surrounds almost every branch of the tree, and destroys almost every leaf. The branches intended for sale are then cut off, spread out on mats and dried in the shade. A tree or two that are fullest of the insect, are preserved to propagate the breed ; and of those a small branch is tied to every tree, when they begin to send forth young branches and leaves.'

The following may serve as an instance of the violent animosity with which apparently frivolous disputes are prosecuted by contending sects among the Hindus. At the town of Gubi in the Mysore, the *Comahis* had erected a temple to a sainted virgin of their tribe. At this the sect of the *Banijigas* took great offence, and resolved to destroy the pious labours of their adversaries. The minister of the Mysore Rajah ordered a wall to be built across the town in order to make a line of separation between the combatants. But this and other expedients, which were resorted to for the purpose of appeasing the feud, were employed in vain :

' Both sides,' says the author, ' are extremely violent and obstinate ; for in defence of its conduct, neither party has any thing like reason to advance. If justice be done, both sides will complain of partiality, and murmurs are now current about the necessity of killing a jack-ass in the street. This may be considered as a slight matter ; but it is not so ; for it would be attended by the immediate desolation of the place. There is not a Hindu in Karnata, that would remain another night in it except by compulsion.'

This singular custom appears to be one of the expedients which have been devised for resisting an attack on the customs of any cast.

At Madana Mada, our traveller was awaked by a prodigious noise, which was occasioned by a multitude of Mussulmans and Pagans, who had assembled to scare away a Pysachi or evil spirit ; which, in the form of epilepsy, had gotten possession of one of the cattle-drivers. Though the people made all the noise which they could, yet the devil kept his hold on the man, who continued senseless and foaming at the mouth, till the Brahman, as was pretended, expelled the fiend by consecrated ashes and prayers. The *Cuncheny*, or dancing women, now form a separate kind of cast ;

' And a certain number of them are attached to every temple of any consequence. The allowances which the musicians receive

for their public duty, is very small; yet morning and evening they are bound to attend at the temple to perform before the image. They must also receive every person travelling on account of the government, meet him at some distance from the town, and conduct him to his quarters with music and dancing. All the handsome girls are instructed to dance and sing, and are all prostitutes, at least to the Brahmans. In ordinary sets they are quite common; but, under the company's government, those attached to temples of extraordinary sanctity, are reserved entirely for the use of the native officers, who are all Brahmans, and who would turn out from the set any girl that profaned herself by communication with persons of low cast, or of no cast at all, such as Christians or Mussulmans. Indeed, almost every one of these girls that is tolerably sightly, is taken by some officer of revenue for his own special use, and is seldom permitted to go to the temple, except in his presence. Most of these officers have more than one wife, and the women of the Brahmans are very beautiful; but the insipidity of their conduct, from a total want of education or accomplishment, makes the dancing women be sought after by all natives with great avidity. The Mussulman officers in particular were exceedingly attached to this kind of company, and lavished away on these women a great part of their incomes. The women very much regret their loss, as the Mussulmans paid liberally, and the Brahmans durst not presume to hinder any girl who chose, from amusing an Asoph, or any of his friends. The Brahmans are not near so lavish of their money, especially where it is secured by the company's government, but trust to their authority for obtaining the favours of the dancers. When a Mussulman called for a set, it procured from twenty to two hundred fanams (from 12s. 6d. to 6l. 4s. 9d.) according to the number and liberality of his friends who were present; for in this country it is customary for every spectator to give something. They are now seldom called upon to perform in private, except at marriages, where a set does not get more than ten fanams, or about 6s. 3d. The girls belonging to this cast who are ugly, or who cannot learn to sing, are married by the musicians. The *nutna*, or person who performs on two small cymbals, is the chief of the set, not only brings up the boys to be musicians, and instructs all the good looking girls, born in the set, to sing and dance, but will purchase handsome girls of any cast whatever that he can procure. When a dancing girl becomes old, she is turned out from the temple without any provision, and is very destitute, unless she has a handsome daughter to succeed her; but if she has, the daughters are in general extremely attentive and kind to their aged parents. To my taste nothing can be more silly and unanimated than the dancing of the women, nor more harsh and barbarous than their music. Some Europeans however, from long habit I suppose, have taken a liking to it, and have even been captivated by the women. Most of them that I have had an opportunity of seeing, have been very

ordinary in their looks, very inelegant in their dress and very dirty in their persons; a large proportion of them have the itch and a still larger proportion are more severely diseased.'

Dr. B. in his xvth chapter, v. iii. notices the following singular custom, which has given birth to a cast named Moylar.

'Any woman of the four pure casts, Brahman, Kshatri, Vaisya, or Sûdra, who is tired of her husband, or who (being a widow, and consequently incapable of marriage) is tired of a life of celibacy, goes to a temple, and eats some of the rice that is offered to the idol. She is then taken before the officers of government, who assemble some people of her cast to inquire into the cause of her resolution; and, if she be of the Brahman cast, to give her an option, of living either in the temple, or out of its precincts. If she chooses the former, she gets a daily allowance of rice, and annually a piece of cloth. She must sweep the temple, fan the idol with a Tibet cow's tail (*Bos grunniens*), and confine her amours to the Brahmins. In fact, she generally becomes a concubine to some officer of the revenue, who gives her a trifle in addition to her public allowance, and who will flog her severely if she grant favors to any other person. The male children of these women are called Moylar, but are fond of assuming the title of Stanika, and wear the Brahmanical thread. As many of them as can procure employment, live about the temples, sweep the areas, sprinkle them with an infusion of cow dung, carry flambeaus before the gods, and perform other similar low offices. The others are reduced to betake themselves to agriculture, or some honest employment. The daughters are partly brought up to live like their mothers, and the remainder are given in marriage to the Stanikas.'

The third volume concludes with an appendix, containing a very copious enumeration of the various articles of commerce, with an account of the probable profit arising on the trade, and a multitude of useful and interesting particulars. This appendix is followed by a general index to the whole work, without which no publication of any extent or variety, can be reckoned complete. We are not in general friends to long extracts, though the size of this work would justify more and longer than we have made; but those which we have exhibited will be sufficient to convey some idea of the varied information which it contains. It is not one of those ephemeral descriptions of foreign scenes, or foreign manners, which furnish only a momentary gratification during the perusal, but which are neglected as soon as they have been perused; it is, on the contrary, calculated more for instruction than



for pleasure, and for utility than for ornament. The details which we have furnished, and the particulars which we have enumerated, are such as we conceived most likely to interest the general reader; but still these volumes contain a very large mass of matter, relative to those parts of India which were the object of the journey, to which frequent reference will be made by the geographer, the merchant, and the politician.

ART. II.—*Edwy and Elgiva, and Sir Everard; two Tales.*  
By the Rev. Robert Bland. 16mo. pp. 187. 7s. Longman. 1808.

SINCE the days of Dryden we have scarcely ever witnessed that goodly sight, a short and interesting tale in the regular English couplet. We have had epic poems, at least at the rate of one for every year; and ballads, both old and new, in every possible variety of metre; but no tales told in the true language of our national poetry. We would therefore gladly hail this little volume as the forerunner of better times to come, as the vehicle in which the genius of old English verse has ventured to return from his long banishment, and reassume the ancient honours of his empire.

In the composition of this particular species of poetry, the name of Dryden stands unrivalled; nor will it be safe for a writer of the present day to adopt any other model for his imitation. Pope was the pupil of that great man; and his native genius enabled him, in many points, even to transcend the excellence of his original. Not so, however, he who takes Pope for his preceptor. The general effort of the human mind, in acting on the principle of imitation, is the endeavour to refine upon the labours of its predecessors. But he who refines upon Pope will be more likely to catch the meretricious ornament of Darwin, or the feeble prettinesses and affected sensibilities which characterise so large a proportion of our modern poetry.

Even in the age of Augustus, though the writings of Ennius, of Lucretius, of Catullus, of Plantus, of Terence, were in the reach and before the eyes of men, yet the advice of the most judicious scholar and most accomplished poet, is 'Resort to the Fountain Head.'

Vos exemplaria *Græca*  
Nocturnâ versate manu, versate diurnâ.

A strict verbal adherence to this rule may, indeed, carry

us back to Chaucer, or still higher; and there is no doubt that the diligent study even of such antiquated models may be made a source of the greatest advantage to modern poets. However, to most purposes of the present question, Dryden must be considered as the father of the English verse; and the more evidently any writer of the present day has framed himself on that admirable model (as to the formation of his heroic couplet, and the perfection of the style of narration) the nearer will be his chance of obtaining and deserving that fame to which he aspires as the reward of his labours.

To apply these principles to the subject before us, we discover, in the spirit of Mr. Bland's versification, a diligent, and (in our opinion) a very successful adherence to the rule we have endeavoured to establish. It is a rule which by no means impedes, it only directs, the efforts of independent genius; nor in attributing to the author of these poems, as his first praise, the judicious choice of a master and the happy transfusion of his excellencies, do we deny him that, which is wholly unconnected, but perfectly consistent with it, of original invention and original powers of expression.

But we have detained our readers too long from the pleasure which the work itself will necessarily give them, and most willingly proceed, therefore, to the task of analyzing, and giving extracts from, the first of the tales before us.

‘ Loud was the mirth, and sweet the minstrel’s lay,  
In hall and bower, on Edwy’s bridal day,  
High thanes and princes throng’d the board around,  
And sovereign beauty the rich banquet crown’d.  
‘ From Egil’s harp the song of joy began,  
Now old, but memory warm’d the tuneful man.’

The epithalamium which follows, is a pleasing composition, and more original than might have been expected from such a subject. Perhaps it is too artificial and too highly ornamented for the rude scald to whom it is attributed: but since we are told that—

‘ He knew the peaceful banquet to prolong,  
Skill’d in the many mysteries of song;’

this remark seems to savour a little of the spirit of hypercriticism.

‘ He sung; the harp obedient to his hand  
Waked into life, and fir’d the lordly band,  
O’er every guest a livelier transport shed,  
And half a vintage for their goblets bled.’

\* \* \* \* \*

'Yet oft the ardent monarch turn'd aside  
And gazed enraptur'd on his blushing bride,  
And oft the blushing bride with trembling haste,  
An answering look on ardent Edwy cast,  
While bashfulness her silent love betray'd,  
And stole a look as if to steal afraid.'

Edwy and his bride, towards evening, escape for a time from the toils of ceremony and loud merriment of the banquet. The tragic business of the drama now commences with the portentous introduction of Archbishop Odo to the assembled thanes. The gloomy unrelenting character of this prelate is drawn with spirit; but we wish that his views had been better defined, and that instead of the vague and improbable story of his having vowed 'in Peter's antient fane,'

'To wrest the sceptre from his monarch's hand,  
And to the pontiff yield his native land,'

the author had contented himself with delineating as concisely, but at the same time as clearly as possible, paying just attention to the *vraisemblance* so essential to what we may call historical fiction, the general scheme of monkish usurpation and tyranny, in pursuance of which Elgiva became the innocent victim of their persecutions.

The contrast between the characters of Odo and his more famous coadjutor, is however well imagined and properly preserved.

'More fam'd for honey'd words and courtly grace,  
In honour Dunstan held the second place;  
Rich abbot he of Glastonbury's shrine,  
And deem'd for saintly holiness divine;  
For by the virtue of his voice, they said,  
He laid the spirits and awak'd the dead.'

Odo's speech to the thanes is strikingly solemn, and most happily characteristic of the bigotry of the age.

'Thanes, by the holy order that I wear,  
And by these beads and sacred cross I swear,  
By heavenly Austin, and saint Michael's power,  
And that strange thorn\* that puts forth wintry flower,  
By saints who bled, and by the voice divine,  
That now its dreadful warning speaks thro' mine,

---

\* The Glastonbury Thorn.

Your monarch's foul incestuous ties are burst,  
 His vows unhallow'd, and his bed accurst.  
 Their prince's guilt a suffering people bears,  
 Atoned at length but by a nation's tears;  
 Nor on yourselves alone had heaven's command  
 Dealt famine, flames, and plague throughout the land,  
 But on your latest sons in future times  
 Amerced the dreadful fine of Edwy's crimes;  
 While he, the wanton author of your woes,  
 Lull'd by soft amorous airs in safe repose,  
 Had lain imparadised in lawless charms,  
 And claspt the bright destruction in his arms,  
 Drank from her eye the subtile fire, and prest  
 His lips enamoured to her ivory breast.

He proceeds to inform his thunder-struck audience of the measures that had been taken by himself and Dunstan to avert this horrible pest; of the ruffians already sent to tear the unhappy lovers asunder; and of their future intentions (but is it not more consistent with probability that he should have been silent on that head?) with respect to Elgiva.

'Avenging fire (and Heaven decrees the doom)  
 From her frail cheek shall sear its vital bloom;  
 Far from her home the glozing traitress sent,  
 In Erin's land to hopeless banishment,  
 Shall weep the havoc of a face once fair,  
 And pour her murmurs to a foreign air.'

The threatened cruelty is executed; and the priests, by their overruling power, effectually tie up the hands of their sovereign alike from preventing and avenging the injury. This is the most difficult task with which the author has had to contend, to represent Edwy, as at once a lover and a man of courage, yet yielding to the oppression he had no power to resist, and not suffering himself to sink under so dreadful a calamity. To lessen this difficulty, a new character is judiciously introduced to our notice, a young and accomplished knight, the friend of Edwy, who undertakes to find out the place of banishment, and, if possible, to restore to him his ravished bride. In avoiding one difficulty, however, the author has here involved himself in another. The interesting character of this young adventurer, the romantic generosity and fearless gallantry of his enterprise, threaten to render him the real hero of the tale, to the prejudice of Edwy himself.

This also he has, in a great measure, surmounted, with a degree of art which does great credit to his inventive

powers. While Clarembert is engaged in his pilgrimage to Ireland, the blank of history is filled up by intestine commotions, and the tumult of a Danish invasion, which compel the king to waste none of his time in childish lamentation, and afford many opportunities to the author for indulging, with all the unrestrained licence of fiction, his native powers of description and imagery.

But this war unfortunately does not occupy the whole period of Clarembert's absence; and Edwy is compelled to drive away useless reflection by an active and manly pursuit of all the hardy exercises of the age. On scenes like these the author feels himself again at liberty to expatiate, and display with effect his knowledge of ancient customs, and of the laws and habits of chivalry.

One day, while the king is hunting in the forest of Andereda, in company with two of his lords, they are attacked by a band of robbers, who were long known to have haunted the neighbourhood; but, by their superior courage, compel them to fly. Edwy is borne away by the ardour of pursuit, and at length loses all traces both of the banditti and of his friends.

The following description of the unfrequented and savage place into which his imprudence has betrayed him, is highly picturesque and animated.

' Not far, a pile of stones uncouth and rude,  
With oaks encompassed, awed the solitude ;  
A work of Pagan hands—the trees unshorn  
Frown'd old and huge, as if with nature born.  
Here once the Druid held his rites profane,  
At which the lamps of Heaven were said to wane ;  
And since that time authentic legends told  
Of witchcraft and foul orgies held of old ;  
That fearful spectres glided o'er the green,  
Whose airy daggers gave the stab unseen.  
Once of this earth, some stood accurs'd for guilt  
Of pillaged fanes, and blood of infants spilt.  
Some, darkly brooding o'er this world of pride,  
View'd man but only on his blackest side,  
Then loathing turn'd, and from life's busy day,  
To worlds unknown, unsummon'd rush'd away.  
Some in frail youth from righteous husbands won  
Their brides, by gold and wicked arts undone.  
With these a crowd of female victims came,  
Who sold their beauty to abuse and shame ;  
In nature's flush cut off, by night they rise,  
Unholy shapes ne'er meant for mortal eyes.



With echoes answering to no mortal sound,  
 Talk the wild glooms, the forest groans around.  
 And since in death divided from the blest,  
 Their graves are thorny, and deny them rest.  
 Vengeance to them is doubly sweet, and hence  
 They war with man, and taint his innocence.  
 On wicked errands bent, they flush the cheek,  
 At thoughts of guilt that sacred slumber break,  
 Altars defile, and urge the murderer's knife,  
 That else in vain had sought a kinsman's life.  
 On tainted gusts the dusky squadrons ride,  
 And curses follow wheresoe'er they glide;  
 There shall no sweets the blasted herbage breathe,  
 But hemlock fatten on the track beneath.

In this horrible solitude, Edwy finds a youth in the habit of a pilgrim; and this pilgrim proves to be no other than his long-lost Elgiva. The rapture of the lovers at so unexpected a meeting is very coldly shadowed forth in a simile, which, on any but so critical an occasion, might have been commended for its elegance; but this is unaccountably rendered the weakest part of the poem. Perhaps the poet shrunk from the task of expressing feelings too powerful for expression, and remembered the veil of Timanthes: but, even if that were his intention, he might have thrown on his veil in a much more graceful manner.

The narrative of Elgiva's adventures which follows, is, however, so full of charms as to make atonement for our previous disappointment; and if the author has remarkably failed in the meeting of the lovers, he has no less remarkably bestowed on this favoured portion of his poem all the vigour of his fancy, and the beauties of his versification.

The mention of the death of Clarembert, killed in effecting her deliverance, demands from Edwy a tribute of sorrow and affection, which appears to us not only extremely poetical in itself, but most happily characteristic of the author's peculiar excellence.

' Arms, love, and honour, noble sentiment,  
 Fair courtesy, and glorious hardiment;  
 Obedience high, and unenslaved by fears,  
 Respect, and silent reverence for years;  
 A comely favour, gracious words, that gain'd  
 The listener's heart, and manners that enchain'd;  
 Mild clemency, that spared the weaker crowd;  
 Fierce hate, and stern defiance to the proud;  
 Valour, that sought a death-bed, render'd great  
 With every charm that made existence sweet;

All in thy generous nature were allied,  
All lived with thee, brave Clarembert, and died,  
Soothes it thy disembodied soul to know  
Our fruitless grief, and tears that idly flow?  
Will marble, fashion'd by the sculptor's care,  
And verse, that memory breathes and treasures there,  
Please thy sweet spirit? Holy roofs shall rise,  
High-wrought, and fit for sad solemnities,  
Where in a twilight aisle erect shall stand  
Thy form, half-beathing from some curious hand,  
Fair as in life: and as the moon-beam falls,  
Cold, pale, and mystic, on the fretted walls,  
Virgins and holy men shall yearly meet  
Around thy tomb; and dirges sad and sweet  
Steal on thy listening sense, and give thee rest,  
If aught of human sorrow touch the blest.'

We will not wrong our readers by anticipating the conclusion of this tale, the greatest part of which we have thus analyzed. Its versification, after the specimens we have given, needs no praise of ours to set it forth; the narrative itself possesses many beauties, but many defects also, of which the greater part may, we think, be attributed to the original history. Much, however, might have been done to render it more complete than it is. The circumstances of the Danish war are related in a most abrupt and confused manner, and hang badly together with the rest of the plot; the same may be said of the short episodes or digressions respecting Leolf the robber, and the preceding life of the thane Sigbert. We have already noticed the faults attending the re-union of the lovers; and a great deal towards the conclusion is hurried over with a degree of carelessness which should not have been permitted to himself by the author.

None of these defects present themselves in the second and shortest of the tales, Sir Everard. This is so much less considerable than the other in size and apparent consequence, that we have devoted most of our criticisms and quotations to Edwy and Elgiva. But, in real merit, we undoubtedly rank it the first. Even the versification of Sir Everard is fully equal to that of the best parts of Edwy, and it is much more uniformly excellent.

We forbear, nevertheless, to attempt an analysis of this very pleasing tale, both because we have dwelt so long on the former, and because it is incapable of any analysis that will not do great injustice to its merits. Advantage is most happily taken of a wild, but not unpleasing superstition, which prevails in some northern countries of Europe;

and the author being unrestrained by the shackles of historical fact, and left entirely to his own invention, his story is well-connected together, and well told in all its parts.

It is not a very easy task to select specimens of a poem so artificially combined ; and yet we are unwilling to take our leave of the book, without some notice of the passages that have most pleased us. The following is a description of the impression made on the minds of two young men of ardent imaginations, who have been brought up on a desert island beneath the North Pole, by the descriptions of human society, in more hospitable and highly-favoured lands.

They read of happy plains, to them denied,  
Of cheering suns, and nature in her pride,  
Of smiling meadows, and of allies green,  
Of copse and woodland in the pictur'd scene,  
Of waters that make music with their falls,  
Of streams that run by venerable walls ;  
They read of towering castles, cities proud  
In antique glory, and their martial crowd  
Of gallant knights who fought for beauty's charms ;  
Of noble dames who smiled upon their arms ;  
Of gentle friendships, and of spirits high,  
A thirst for honour, e'en in enmity :  
But more than all that pleased in peopled town,  
In smiling scene, or arms, or fair renown,  
Far more than all their sickening fancy wrought,  
Souls link'd in love, and interchange of thought.

Sir Everard thus pathetically dwells on the charms and virtues of a beloved wife from whom he had been cruelly separated for many years by violence.

' Oh, she was fair ! as holy angels fair,  
Beyond what lovers picture, and despair ;  
Temper'd so sweet, so form'd for man's content,  
Of sober sadness and light merriment,  
So framed for all that generous love rewards,  
For sweet responses and for soft regards,  
That I had hung delighted on her smile,  
And found a heaven upon a desert isle,  
Bless'd my rude toil, and braved this bitter cold,  
And hugg'd the sorrows that her voice consoled :  
So had she charmed the labours of the day,  
Softened my griefs, or looked them quite away.'

Mr. Bland has seen the vices of modern poetry with a critical eye ; and yet his prudence, or his courage, does not seem to have always kept pace with his judgment, in

stemming the tide of corruption. Thus, though his general spirit disclaims the aids of meretricious ornament, there are some passages in his poems, in which he seems most ambitious of that which he knows he ought most to avoid ; and there are also instances in which, for the sake of some real or imaginary charm, he has stept out of his way, and given himself an air of quaintness inconsistent with the plain and just principles by which he appears, in general, to be guided.

Among these perhaps we ought to class the idea by which Sir Everard is made, on a desert island, to amuse himself by moulding an exact image of his lost wife, which he keeps constantly hidden in his bosom. This fancy is evidently taken from a speech of Admetus in the *Alcestis* ; and even there it seems a little extravagant ; but here it is more so : for, not to say that in the time of Edward the third, knights were bad statuarys, it may be some matter of astonishment how Sir Everard could have found either time or materials for such an occupation in Greenland. Or, if we suppose that he brought it with him from England, still it remains a solitary instance of the art. Even a miniature picture would scarcely, we imagine, have escaped the censure of anachronism : but a bust, or an image, transports the reader instantly from the days of chivalry to the present age of Nollekens and Mrs. Damer.

We have been thus free in our censure of the image of Geraldine, because we really think it the only defective passage in the poem ; which, with the exception of this conceit, is deserving of the highest and most unmix'd approbation.

In *Edwy and Elgiva*, we have two or three scenes which remind us a little too strongly of the theatre or opera. For instance, the triumphal entry of *Edwy* after the Danish war.

‘ Again around him press’d the servile crowd ;  
 Again the prelates to their sovereign bowed ;  
 And youths, their brows with fillets crown’d, await  
 Their prince returning to his peaceful state ;  
 With bands of virgins mix’d, who greet with song  
 The warrior-train, and to the triumph throng ;  
 All blooming as the spring, and every maid,  
 In snowy vest of gentle peace arrayed,  
 Her favourite chieftain with a garland hail’d,  
 Of rose and ivy curiously entrail’d.  
 All but the prince rejoiced.’—

But here we again most gladly turn from the language

of censure; to that of admiration. Nothing can be more happy (for though the thought is not strictly new, we have never seen it more beautifully expressed) than the simile which follows :

‘ Thus, on one spot amid a fruitful plain,  
The summer falls in balm and smiles in vain.  
Though shrub and flower the neighbouring earth adorn,  
That give their breath of fragrance to the morn,  
Wooded by soft rains and man’s expecting toil,  
No season quickens this unhappy soil ;  
The lazy sand defies a master’s care,  
And niggard nature ever winters there.’

Dryden is often most admirable for the art with which he has interweaved his moral sentences and allusions into the main body of his tale ; and Mr. Bland, together with many of his other excellences, has very judiciously transfused this also into his poetry, and even, in some instances, improved upon it. Though we have already extracted so largely from his book, we cannot refuse ourselves the pleasure of one more quotation, demonstrative of this observation.

‘ Edwy to peaceful halls again repairs,  
To hateful luxuries, and smiling cares ;  
Gay gilded roofs to pleasure built by pride,  
Where pleasure ne’er was tempted to reside ;  
(Like heathen fanes by stupid terror rear’d  
To gods who never in those fanes appeared ;)   
For not in place her fairy palace stands,  
Fix’d to no climate, and unbuilt by hands ;  
No more the joyous inmate will remain  
In fields that teem’d with golden grain,  
Those happy fields that wanton poets sing,  
For ever flowery near the morning spring,  
Where amber drops, and glorious to behold  
The waters ripple clear o’er beds of gold,  
Than on the horror of a wintry heath,  
Or rock or promontory sharp with death.’

The volume is accompanied by ample notes, which, though well-written and amusing, are often very irrelevant, and discover too great a fondness for argumentation. The passion for note-writing is one of the worst vices of the age ; and, though Mr. Bland has not sinned by any means to the same extent with most of his contemporaries, we wish that his good sense, which has taught him to see and avoid so many faults of greater consequence, had been



sufficient to guard him from this also; many of his illustrations, nevertheless, are sensible and pleasing; and (though we wonder in what manner they procured an introduction to king Edwy's anti-chamber) we cannot pass without praise, the excellent translations from the Grecian drama.

Notwithstanding the high pleasure we have received from the perusal of this little book, we feel a still greater in announcing that the author, in his preface, gives us reason to expect a continuation of his labours.

ART. III.—*The Life of George Washington, Commander in Chief of the Armies of the United States in the War which established their Independence; and first President of the United States. By David Ramsay, M.D. of Charleston South Carolina, Member of Congress in 1782, 1783, 1784, 1785, and Author of the History of the American Revolution. 8vo. Cadell and Davies. 1807.*

OF all the classes of character which can occupy the attention of the biographer, none is so conspicuously entitled to the applause and gratitude of mankind, as he who has rescued his country from oppression, and fixed her independence on a solid basis. And of all those who have at any time filled this enviable situation, the most exalted in moral dignity, the purest in motive, the most unsullied in integrity, the farthest removed from every taint or suspicion of selfishness, is the great champion of American liberty. Others have possessed more brilliant qualities, and performed more dazzling achievements; but the patience, the perseverance, the fidelity, the 'singleness of heart,' with which Washington served his country in the worst of times, and under the most discouraging circumstances; his complete self-devotion to the common cause, and his noble disregard of every temptation to indulge either avarice or ambition; combined with his moderation in the exercise of a sovereignty conferred by the unanimous choice of a people indebted to him for their freedom; afford altogether such a perfect example of a steady and well-principled patriotism, as the world, we fear, will long be unable to parallel.

We rejoice to see the life of such a man published in a form accessible to most readers, written in a plain, unambitious style, and containing a perspicuous narrative of the great public events in which he had the most important share. Perhaps there is still some reason to complain that materials have not been produced, sufficient to gratify the public

curiosity respecting the private history, the domestic anecdotes, and the unpremeditated traits which enable us to form a complete familiarity with distinguished characters. The volume before us hardly contains a page which does not as properly belong to a general history of the United States as to the biography of their illustrious citizen. His skill and alacrity as a military man, at an early age, are exemplified in his conduct towards the French and Indians, who attacked Virginia about the year 1753; and it appears that, by the adoption of his advice, the mischief of predatory incursions was radically destroyed. But when he married, and retired to his patrimony at Mount Vernon, surely the important interval that elapsed between his 26th and 41st year demanded some more specific notice than that he 'gave himself up to domestic pursuits. . . . . exclusively for *fifteen years*, with the exception of his serving in the house of burgesses of the colony of Virginia, and as a judge of the court of the county where he resided.' This *exception* appears to us to sweep away nearly all the information that could have been desired on the subject, in addition to that knowledge of the events of the revolutionary war, which nearly all men already possessed. And we should have imagined that the entire period might have been filled up with materials of a most interesting nature, since the conduct of Washington at that time in the several situations in which he is here described to have been placed, laid the foundations of the universal esteem and confidence, which called him, at the commencement of the contest, to the most elevated military trust.

The greatest proof perhaps that can be given of a true genius for war, is the introduction of discipline, order, and system, among irregular bodies of men, and the infusion of a martial spirit into those whose former habits have been confined to the occupations of civil life. In these particulars, the American chief had uncommon difficulties to encounter.

'The army put under the command of Washington, amounted to 14,500 men. Several circumstances concurred to render this force very inadequate to active operations. Military stores were deficient in camp, and the whole in the country was inconsiderable. On the 4th of August, all the stock of powder in the American camp, and in the public magazines of the four New England provinces, would have made little more than nine rounds a man. In this destitute condition the army remained for a fortnight. To the want of powder was added a very general want of bayonets, of clothes, of working tools, and a total want of engineers.'

' In Massachusetts the men had chosen their officers, and, rank excepted, were, in other respects frequently their equals. To form one uniform mass of these discordant materials; and to subject freemen, animated with the spirit of liberty, to the control of military discipline, required patience, forbearance, and a spirit of accommodation. This delicate and arduous duty was undertaken by general Washington, and discharged with great address. When he had made considerable progress in disciplining his army, the term for which enlistments had taken place was on the point of expiring. The troops from Connecticut and Rhode Island were only engaged to the first of December 1775, and no part of the army longer than the first of January 1776.'

To all these evils his sagacity applied such remedies as the situation of things allowed; and the following extract from his general orders of the 26th of October, 1776, is not only a good specimen of his style in addressing his men, but shews the importance which he attached to the moral pride of his army:

' The times, and the importance of the great cause we are engaged in, allow no room for hesitation and delay. When life, liberty, and property are at stake; when our country is in danger of being a melancholy scene of bloodshed and desolation; when our towns are laid in ashes, innocent women and children driven from their peaceful habitations; when calamities like these are staring us in the face, and a brutal savage enemy are threatening us and every thing we hold dear with destruction from foreign troops, it little becomes the character of a soldier to shrink from danger, and condition for new terms. It is the general's intention to indulge both officers and soldiers who compose the new army with furloughs for a reasonable time, but this must be done in such a manner as not to injure the service, or weaken the army too much at once. In the instructions given to the recruiting officers, the general enjoined upon them not to enlist any person suspected to be unfriendly to the liberties of America; nor any vagabond, to whom all causes and countries are equal and alike indifferent.'

It is far from our intention to trace all the military events of these campaigns, which afforded few opportunities of displaying the manners of a skilful general, or the gallantry of an adventurous soldier, but demanded the unremitting exercise of much rarer qualities, equanimity, forbearance, address, and moderation. The detail of them is indeed quite uninteresting, except as they are connected with the important results which they produced. But there is one point of view in which the character of Washington is so eminently entitled to applause, that we are anxious to draw

the attention of our readers particularly to it: The history of the United States forms a striking exception to a remark which has been so often quoted as almost to have passed into a maxim, viz. that wherever an established government is overturned, it must necessarily be succeeded by a military despotism. Circumstances of various kinds undoubtedly combined to exempt that country from so dreadful a fate: yet it appears to us incontrovertibly clear, that America is principally, if not entirely, indebted for her independence, to the moderation of her commander in chief. The want of funds, the loss of credit, and the consequent depreciation of the paper money, in which the troops were paid, exposed them to the most severe distress, and unavoidably excited a spirit of discontent, which appears to have been at all times ready to break forth into open mutiny. The march of the common men might be traced by the blood of their naked feet over the frozen country; the officers were without any distinction in dress or appearance, and they knew that their wives and children were left unprovided, perhaps famishing at home. Their very subsistence was wrung by violence from their laborious and peaceful fellow citizens, who were almost inclined to curse the promised freedom which demanded such painful sacrifices. Congress was ever ready to accuse the army of disaffection to the public cause, and was at the same time loudly exclaimed against for its unfeeling negligence of the heroic defenders of the state.

In this critical situation of affairs, it was the arduous task of Washington to mediate between these bodies, whose cooperation he knew to be essential to the welfare and existence of both; to supply the deficiencies occasioned by continual desertion, and prevent partial mutinies from becoming general; to conciliate the inflamed minds of the soldiery, without a compromise of discipline; and to obtain by resolute remonstrance, a redress of the cruel grievances they endured, without weakening their due subordination to the civil government. His patient dexterity in balancing these conflicting difficulties was equalled by the disinterested resolution with which he sacrificed his own popularity to the maintenance of their durable interests. Had he secretly fomented the dissatisfaction of those whom he commanded, had he wavered for a single hour in the steadiness of his conduct, had he even remained neuter, and permitted things to take their natural course, the army must have overturned the government, and have placed their chief, without power of resistance on his part, at the head of affairs. In preferring the establishment of a free constitution to the views of personal aggrandizement and supremacy which such circum-

stances must have forced upon him, he made the most exemplary sacrifice at the shrine of honour and duty that is recorded in the history of the world.

When the imbecility of the federal constitution made it necessary, after a six years' trial, to unite the states under a single head, the unbiassed and unanimous voice of the American people called Washington to the president's chair. He appears to have quitted his retirement at Mount Vernon with unfeigned reluctance, while he was above the affectation of disguising that if such a change in the constitution was really necessary, his former services pointed him out as the man to whom the supreme authority would most naturally be entrusted. His acceptance of the office was hailed with universal joy; and the popular triumph which was prepared for him at Trenton, on the very spot where thirteen years before he had rescued his country from despondency by one of the most brilliant exploits performed during the war, is described in a most interesting manner.

On his government we may safely bestow that praise which is the true test of merit in the ruler of a state: he did all the good to his country which it was capable under the circumstances of receiving. The situation he filled was peculiarly qualified to exercise his prudence and moderation, which preserved America in the enjoyment of a respectable neutrality through all the storms of the French revolution. The times called for extraordinary caution, yet we are almost inclined to think that he was betrayed in one instance into something nearly approaching to duplicity. We allude to the enthusiastic terms of unmingled admiration in which he speaks of the French revolution to M. Adet, at a time when his private sentiments were conveyed to his successor, Mr. Adams, in the following manner: 'It is reserved for intoxicated and lawless France (for purposes of Providence far beyond the reach of human ken) to slaughter her own citizens, and to disturb the repose of all the world besides,' &c. p. 396. Indeed if we were obliged to find any defect in a character so substantially virtuous, we should say that with more candour and openness, it would have appeared more amiable and attractive. Through the whole of this narrative, Dr. Ramsay mentions nothing of his connection either with personal friends or political associates, except for the purpose of introducing letters addressed to them; and it strikes us as very remarkable that the name of Franklin occurs only twice, and on the most trifling occasions. We could fancy too that, in some of his answers to the numerous public and private exhortations to him to accept the presidency, we discovered a little more of the *nolo episcopari*, than is quite



consistent with simplicity and plain dealing. Nor can our feelings entirely applaud the manner in which his 'favourite maxim in controversies with foreign nations is stated,' viz. 'so to conduct himself towards them as to put them in the wrong:' which, in our judgment, was only a different and more ungracious manner of expressing a resolution on his part to adopt a perfect integrity as the line of his own conduct towards them. But even if we are right in conceiving that these little traits discover something less of openness than could have been desired, great allowances must be made for the circumstances which for so long a series of years imposed upon him as duties the extreme of caution and reserve; and it is certainly fortunate for the interests and independence of the American republic, that her commander in the war, and her chief magistrate during the French revolution, possessed in so eminent a degree the useful virtues of moderation and forbearance.

The death of this great man took place on the 14th of December, 1799, in consequence of an inflammation of the trachea, produced by cold. 'In about thirty-five hours from the time he was in his usual health, he expired without a struggle, and in the perfect use of his reason.

'In every stage of his disorder he believed that he should die, and was so much under this impression, that he submitted to the prescriptions of his physicians more from a sense of duty than expectation of relief. Having given them a trial, he expressed a wish that he might be permitted to die without farther interruption. After his power of deglutition was gone, he undressed himself and went to bed, to die there. To his friend and physician, Dr. Craik, he said, I am dying, and have been dying for a long time; but I am not afraid to die. The equanimity which attended him through life did not forsake him in death. He submitted to the inevitable stroke with the dignity of a man, the calmness of a philosopher, and the resignation and confidence of a christian.'

ART. IV.—*Lectures on the truly eminent English Poets.*  
By Perceval Stockdale. 1l. 1s. Longman, Hurst, &c.  
1807.

'I HAVE long practised,' says our author, '(whenever I was maintaining a good cause) an unpopular openness of disposition; and I will practise it to the end. I foresee, with a merited contempt, many pedagogical, pedantic, and reviewing ferulas brandished before me; but surely the iron rod of the statesman is not yet impending over our literary freedom.'

It is this open and candid disposition which appears to have called down the persecution of a vain and frivolous dignitary upon the infirmities of Mr. Stockdale's age. It is not improbable that the pain excited by ill-usage has co-operated with the benignity of his nature, in making him the champion of traduced character, and in arming him against the great dictator in English poesy, wherever his severity preponderates over his justice.

Of Dr. Johnson himself he ever speaks with deference, and more particularly at that period of the critic's life, when 'his time was spent in provision for the day that was passing over him, and when he was overlooked by gaiety, wealth, and power.' Of that melancholy neglect he relates the following anecdote, sufficiently humiliating to those sanguine men who promise to themselves the notice and esteem of the world from the consciousness of vast abilities.

'Mr. Garrick wrote to me from Hampton, in the year 1773, acquainting me that he had a remedy for weak eyes, with which Dr. Johnson had lately been very much afflicted. He desired me to propose the use of his eye-water to the Doctor. I waited on him on a Sunday forenoon, in Bolt Court: his eyes were so much better, that he said, he should have gone abroad on that day, had he thought of any particular place for a visit. I replied, that I should have supposed that *he* could never be at a loss for such a place. "My dear Stockdale," said he with great emotion, "for many years of my life I had *no* place to go to."

The Doctor repeated, 'with the tear starting in his eye, that for many years in London he had *no* where to go to.' The plan of our author, and his embarrassments, shall be explained in his own words.

'In the year 1795 I began to write, at Monmouth, the following observations and descriptions, on the productions of our *TRULY* eminent poets. In the prosecution of them, so many and long interruptions intervened, that thirteen years elapsed before they were brought to a conclusion.

'I had intended to give my sentiments on the writings and characters of our great poets, under the title, and in the form of lectures, to such audiences as might honour me with their attention. But unexpected and severe infirmities of old age have prevented me from executing my intention. I have been long oppressed with a most afflicting nervous disorder, (not unusual to literary men,) which has rendered me incapable of intellectual exertion and employment.'

Spenser lays the first claim to Mr. Stockdale's attention; but as the limits of a Review are confined, we cannot do better in the space allotted to us than to bring into contact the

opinions of our author, and those of Dr. Johnson, where they are opposite. On the character of Caliban :

"It was a tradition," says Dr. Warburton, "that Lord Falkland, Lord C. J. Vaughan, and Mr. Selden, concurred in observing, that Shakespeare had not only found out a new character in his Caliban, but had also devised and adapted a new manner of language for that character."

"On this anecdote Dr. Johnson thus animadverts:—"Whence these critics derived the notion of a new language appropriated to Caliban, I cannot find. They certainly mistook brutality of sentiment for uncouthness of words. Caliban had learned to speak of Prospero, and his daughter; he had no names for the sun and moon before *their* arrival: and could not have invented a language of his own, without more understanding than Shakespeare has thought it proper to bestow upon him. His diction is, indeed, somewhat clouded by the gloominess of his temper, and the malignity of his purposes; but let any other being entertain the same thoughts, and he will find them easily issue in the same expressions."

\* The opinion of Lord Falkland, and his friends, with regard to the language of Caliban, was worthy of the men who entertained it. How could those liberal critics be mistaken by our great master of English literature, when they clearly meant by a *new language*, or a *new manner of language*, by no means an absolutely new language, in the rigid and literal sense of the expression; but in a signification which our English idiom often, and easily admits; a new kind of a colloquial strain; a novelty of sentiments, and images, which are most happily adapted to this monstrous, yet striking and interesting creature of Shakespeare's imagination."

He is well supported by the following citation, which is hardly the language of the children of this earth:

As wicked dew as e'er my mother brushed,  
With raven's feather, from unwholesome fen,  
Drop on you both! a south-west wind blow on you,  
And blister you all o'er!

The defence of Milton against the overpowering weight of objections urged by Johnson to the subject, phraseology, and harmony of *Paradise Lost*, is not quite so fortunate. Had our author contented himself with clearing the character of the man, which he has most ably performed, he had done service to his memory, aspersed, as it before stood, by the injustice of party. But it is not mere assertion which can disprove the many defects attributed by our great critic to that extraordinary poem. It ill becomes us in these days to panegyrisé that sublimity on which all are agreed; but

Mr. Stockdale's observations amount to little more. The charges which he undertakes to disprove, are want of interest, want of pathos, a structure of verse more than suspicious, and a style formed upon perverse and pedantic principles. Had he agreed with his predecessor on these points, the fame of the poet had rested unshaken, as before, on that sublimity which has never been disputed. But to defend another by paying exaggerated homage to his weaknesses, is an act somewhat savouring of treachery.

'Without any general, or infatuated prejudice ; but with nature I hope, and reason, for me ; Milton might dispense with those rules of accuracy which, perhaps, could not, with propriety, be altogether neglected by any other poet ; though by a generous poet, they will never be minutely observed : and I wish that I had ability, and importance enough, to enfeeble the reign of their coercion.'

A sentence more directly pointed to burst through the few salutary restrictions which English poets have imposed on themselves, it would be hard to imagine. Is it then of no consideration, that, from an ignorance or contempt of these rules of accuracy, the vivid imagination of Spenser should so frequently have wasted itself in trifles irreconcilable to reason ? that Shakespeare has in so many instances thrown away the key to the heart, which he inherited from nature, and insulted the feelings excited by himself with sallies of unseasonable buffoonery ? that Milton should have plunged his reader, giddy with the elevation to which he has been lifted, into the cold and comfortless depths of theological subtleties ? that Dryden, whose only difficulty was to select from the immensity of his treasures that which suited his purpose, has bequeathed to us no single drama which might not stand equally the monument of genius and absurdity ? Is it of no consideration that the poets of England, equal in number and in genius to those of Italy, are principally known on the continent by their errors, and must be read even by their own countrymen with an unjust and childish allowance for their eccentricities.

The bigotry and partiality conspicuous in the 'Lives of the Poets,' is not unhappily censured by our author ; among many passages in point we transcribe the following :

'The name of Johnson authorized *him* to take liberties which would not have been tolerated from a less fortunate devotee to literary fame. His name, however, shall never circumscribe *my* range in the pursuit and publication of truth. I will not presume to request your attention, but to our *truly* great poets. I will not presume to thrust into that glorious class any despicable poetaster ;

for the sake of his politicks, or religion ; because he was a Tory in his civil principles, or superstitious in his piety. I will not commit such a gross critical *misnomer*. I will not be guilty of such impertinence to those by whom I should wish to be esteemed. I will not be so profane to the shades of *Spenser* ; *Shakespeare* ; and the divine *Milton* ; I will not be so profane to the genius of my great master, whom I am now contemplating ;—as to rank the feeble *Pomfret* ; *Yalden* ; good *Isaac Watts* ; and *Sir Richard* ;—“ rumbling rough, and fierce ;”—that infinite accumulator of confused, and barbarous verses ; with our *most eminent English poets*.’

And again, in the remarks on Young’s last poem, ‘ the Resignation,’ he arraigns with much justice the opinion of his predecessor, influenced as it was by the subject, rather than the spirit of the lines themselves.

‘ A short time before his death, he published his poem of *Resignation*. It is far inferior to his *great* poetical compositions ; it shows that his flame of poetry, as well as his vital activity, were now, subsiding. I shall be bold enough, however, to quote Johnson’s absolute contradiction of this opinion : when I meet with just and vigorous criticism, in the writings of this great man, I am not surprized ; I am as little surprized when I meet with arrogant and dictatorial absurdities.’

“ His last poem ” (says he) “ was *The Resignation* ; in which he made, as he was accustomed, an experiment of a new mode of writing ; and succeeded better than in his *Ocean*, or his *Merchant*. It was very falsely represented, as a proof of decaying faculties. There is *Young*, in every stanza ; such as he often was, in his highest vigour.”—*Life of Young*, p. 423.

‘ In answering this dogma, I can only be at the pains to refer my sensible audience to the poem itself. By what reason Johnson was induced to give this poem an eulogy which it by no means deserved, it is not easy to discover ; perhaps two of his reasons were, its piety and its expostulations with Voltaire. But what violation of poetical justice may we not expect from a critick, who made a poet of Mother Watts ; and of Sir Richard Blackmore ;—of rough ; and fierce ; and rumbling memory ?’

It is a melancholy and humiliating reflection, that in minds the most vigorous and comprehensive, and in dispositions the most humane and amiable, some instances of imbecility and hardness of heart may be discovered that would disgrace human nature even in its most untamed and barbarous state. We again take part with our author in the following reflections on a cruel and unrelenting sentence passed by Dr. Johnson :

‘The elegy to the memory of an unfortunate lady, has been highly, and justly praised. In that elegy, a humane, and generous melan-



choly is expressed in the most pathetick eloquence; in the most liquid numbers. It is marked with a generous indignation; with animated remonstrance; with fine moral reflections; and moral admonition; successive, and sable funereal imagery is pictured to the descendants of the unfeeling guardian, with a poetical pomp and solemnity; earth, air, and heaven, are interested in the fate of the unhappy fair one; the earliest dews of the morning drop on her grave; it is adorned with the first roses of the year; and it is overshadowed with wings of angels. There are, however, sullen men or sullen humours, that will not listen to the voice of the charmer, charm he never so wisely.

"It does not appear" (says Dr. Johnson) "that the lady had *any* claim to praise; or *much* to compassion. She seems to have been impatient, violent, and ungovernable. Her uncle's power could not have lasted long; the hour of liberty, and choice would have come in time; but her desires were too hot for delay; and she liked self-murder better than suspense.

"Nor is it discovered that the uncle, whoever he was, is, with much justice, delivered to posterity as a *false guardian*: he seems to have done only that for which a guardian is appointed; he endeavoured to direct his niece till she should be able to direct herself. Poetry has not often been worse employed, than in dignifying the amorous fury of a raving girl."—Pp. 25, 26.

"Though some parts of Johnson's moral, and literary character are highly respectable, I am here almost tempted to exclaim, with Falstaff (and the callous prejudices from which this barbarous language proceeded, would justify the exclamation) "Why what a Herod of jury is *this*!" Could a heart, that, in its better dispositions, melted at a tale of woe, whatever was the cause of that woe; thus inflexibly persecute the memory of an accomplished female; who must have suffered as much as fancy can conceive; and more than tongue can express? Are souls of sensibility, and humanity; are the disciples of true religion insulted with these remarks by a poet, and a christian philosopher; or by a mere commercial father or uncle; who would marry his daughter, or his niece to the devil, for title, and fortune; and who fancies that dignity and happiness, are the inseparable concomitants of the possession of wealth? I trust in the God of mercy, and forgiveness, that the bulls of popes, and the frowns, and anathemas of priests, are, by *this* time, equally insignificant; therefore, I likewise trust that the present company will allow me tenderly to compassionate the suicide; and with a particular tenderness, to compassionate the suicide who falls a victim to love."

The liberal and sensible avowal of the author's opinions, in vol. i. p. 588, is in the same spirit of dignity and energy, which, we fear, has been turned by artful and designing men to his detriment. His defence of the unfortunate Chatterton, and his attack on the modish Walpole, and the two

perplexed antiquarians, Milles and Briant, are happy in every thing but their unseasonable dilation. The reasoning appears unanswerable in itself, but the arguments of which it is composed he scattered at such distances, that it is difficult to collect them in a body, and make them bear with their united force upon the points to which they are directed. We have abstained from obtruding our own opinions where they may be at variance with Mr. Stockdale, from a firm persuasion that the world in general are more solicitous to know the prominent character of the author, than the answers of his reviewer.

From the citations already made from Mr. Stockdale's work, our readers will evidently discover an independent spirit, and a well-directed endeavour to correct abuses in literature which are grown venerable from usage and authority. With the following extract on a disputed and highly interesting character, we close the book.

'Let me not be thought uncharitable, if I cannot but suspect that Young's high, and unmerited praise of Addison's virtue, and practical piety, partly flowed from an ungenerous dislike of Pope. Young must have well known the base treatment which Pope received from Addison, treatment, which, at length, extorted from our generous, and divine poet, that severe, and immortal retaliation which it well deserved. Young bestows on Addison's mode of dying a profusion of superstition; of holy bombast. "By their fruits ye shall know them." A good, and generous tenour of life is an infallible moral criterion of the heart, and mind; the clergy naturally lay a great stress on the scene of a death-bed; a disinterested, and liberal man lays none. The influence of a distemper may shake the best of souls with unmerited horror; a natural, and habitual firmness of mind may enable a bad character to quit this earthly stage with calmness, and decorum. I wish to maintain the faith of Johnson; and to avoid the infidelity of Bolingbroke, and Hume; but, with the religion of Johnson, let me meet death, like *them*, unappalled, and serene; not with the superstitious, and gloomy fears, of our very unequal, and inconsistent Christian philosopher.

'Mr. Addison lent his friend Sir Richard Steele, a hundred pounds, and sent an execution into his house, because he could not pay the money. He translated the first book of the Iliad, from his envy of Pope's fortune, and glory; he prevailed with Tickell to pretend that *he* was the author of the translation: a miserable translation it was, comparatively with Pope's, yet to Pope's Addison gave it a decided, and publick preference. I want only *these* facts, to pronounce upon the general virtue of the man who commits them. I am far from presuming to think that they might not be forgiven by a merciful God. I shall only say that I can attribute no virtuous, and exemplary merit to the death of such a man. It may have been a rational, and serene death; in consequence of a long, and sincere repentance; it may have been an acting; a theatrical death; affected by assumed fortitude, and artful hypocrisy.'

ART. V.—*History of the House of Austria, from the Foundation of the Monarchy by Rhodolph of Hapsburgh, to the Death of Leopold the Second. By William Coxe, F.R.S. &c. &c. Vol. II. Cadell.*

[Concluded from p. 14.]

ON the death of Joseph, his brother Charles, the only surviving male of the house of Austria, succeeded by virtue of a family compact to the government of all the hereditary states, and was unanimously elected emperor while still absent in Spain. The family compact under which he claimed, had been established by Leopold with a view to prevent the evils of a disputed succession. It provided, that in case of the decease of Joseph without issue male, the whole inheritance should descend on Charles; and, in case of the decease of Charles under similar circumstances, that the daughters of Joseph should then succeed in preference to the daughters of Charles.

The conduct of the two brothers, with respect to the obligations of this equitable compact, affords by no means an unfair criterion of their respective characters. Joseph, although Charles was absent at the time, and every circumstance was favourable to the views of ambition or parental affection, confirmed on his death-bed the arrangement made by his father, and consigned to his mother the care of the administration, till Charles's return. Charles, on the contrary, with an ingratitude and injustice only equalled by the short-sighted weakness of his policy, scarcely found himself seated on his throne before he promulgated, under the name of the Pragmatic Sanction, a new law for the succession of his dominions, by which he transferred the preference to his own daughters; and, for the greater security to this unconscientious transaction, compelled his nieces, the Josephine archduchesses, to renounce their just pretensions at the times of their respective marriages with the electors of Saxony and Bavaria.

We are really surprised that the want of common honesty and justice, so conspicuous in this transaction, and in other passages of his life, should have formed no part of Mr. Coxe's general estimate of his character, which is otherwise drawn up with apparent accuracy.

' Charles was not gifted with the talents of his brother Joseph, had not enjoyed the same advantages of education, and was by nature so cold and phlegmatic, that it was said he was serious even when he smiled; but he was by no means deficient in abi-

lities. His conception though slow was clear; his political knowledge was extensive, and he expressed himself in various languages with great elegance and facility. *His intentions were honest and upright*; and he was anxious to govern his subjects with wisdom and justice. His religion was less tinctured with bigotry than that of his father Leopold, or even of his brother Joseph. Though sincere in his belief of the Roman Catholic faith, and attached from principle to the see of Rome, he yet preserved himself in great points uninfluenced, always retained the clergy in due subjection, and never suffered them to intermeddle in matters of state. *Strict in his morals*, he was ever remarkable for great propriety of character and decorum of manners; and even in the ardour of youth, never deviated into any glaring excess. But these solid qualities and upright intentions were counteracted by a narrow jealousy, a love of adulation, and a punctilious obstinacy, which induced him to maintain an inflexible perseverance in measures once adopted; and these natural defects were aggravated by the ascendancy which an artful favorite, Count Altheim, had acquired over his mind.' p. 48.

'At the commencement of his reign, Charles was sedulous in the transaction of business, constantly attended the conferences of state, toiled through a mass of diplomatic papers, and even wrote numerous dispatches with his own hand. But this assiduity gradually subsided, he devoted great part of his time to music and to the pleasures of the chase, and wasted the remainder in ceremonies and parade, or in the company of his Spanish and Italian favourites. He still, however, affected great attention to business, and would suffer no measure to be executed which he had not previously examined and sanctioned: He also received the result of each conference, which was drawn up by Count Sinsendorf, secretary for foreign affairs, and counter memorials were often presented by the other ministers. From this mode of conducting business, papers and documents continually accumulated, which the emperor had neither leisure nor inclination to examine; and the most important negotiations were continually neglected. Even the copy of the Quadruple alliance remained three months on his table before he could be induced to sign it.' p. 59.

Charles the sixth, with an understanding just suited to the petty details of a counting-house, if his versatility and weakness had not been such as to unfit him for any useful situation in life, absolutely ignorant of military affairs, totally incapable of any large and extended views of policy, was yet so arrogant and self-sufficient, as to conceive himself the complete man of business, the wise politician, and the consummate general. He intermeddled in every operation of the state, and became the Marplot of his cabinet. He indulged his favourites (whom he changed as often as

caprice and affectation prompted) with the most untroubled licence of acting, till a fit of business seized him; and then every wheel was stopped in an instant, the whole machine of state was thrown into disorder, every plan was instantly abandoned, and some new scheme suggested, equally unintelligible to every body round him, and inexplicable by the emperor himself. With still greater arrogance and impertinence, he presumed to direct the operations of his armies in all parts of his dominions, and at the remotest distances from his capital. One peremptory and absurd order followed closely on the heels of another, to which it was directly opposite. The favourite of an hour, entrusted with absolute and unlimited command, had no sooner arranged his scheme of the campaign, and commenced his operations, than a new, and probably impracticable plan comes express from Vienna, with the most absolute mandate for its execution. It fails. The general is blamed for all the ill-success of the war. He is confined in some distant fortress for life; and a new favourite, equally ill-chosen, perhaps is substituted, with the same untroubled powers, subject only to the same uncontrollable whims, and of course productive of the same result. Such seems, in a few words, to be the whole history of the unfortunate campaigns of Seckendorf, Königsegg, and Wallis, which are here detailed with an interesting minuteness, and interspersed with much of very valuable and amusing information, collected from the letters of Mr. Robinson, the British ambassador at Vienna, to lord Harrington.

From these letters, as well as from a great variety of state papers among the Waldegrave, Walpole, and Hardwicke collections, Mr. Coxe has been able to give us a very clear and familiar insight into the situation of Charles's court, the characters of himself, his ministers and favourites, from which we would willingly indulge ourselves in making considerable extracts; but our limits are insufficient for the purpose, and we must hasten to the yet more interesting history of Maria Theresa, for a great part of which the same materials are employed.

We cannot, however, refuse ourselves the pleasure of transcribing a few particulars relating to the great Eugene, which are strikingly characteristic, not only of himself, but of his foolish master.

‘Though from fidelity to the Emperor, Eugene had rejected the offers of Louis the fourteenth, to restore him to his native country, and confer on him the government of Champagne, with the rank of marshal, yet he was not personally attached to his sovereign;



he neither conciliated his friendship nor sought his regard; nor could he conceal that he found the liberal mind of Joseph more congenial to his own, than the suspicious temper of Charles; and he frequently observed, 'Joseph always treated me as a brother, but Charles as a master.'

Eugene possessed such an unaffected modesty, that he did not receive without pain even the common acknowledgements due to his transcendent talents; and being himself thus averse to flattery, he did not pay sufficient deference to the emperor, who was accustomed to receive the most fulsome tribute from all who approached his person. He had conceived such horror at the smallest appearance of deceit as to avoid almost the common expressions of civility; was cold and distant in his first address, but remarkable for never making a promise which he did not intend to fulfil. Hence he offended many whom it was his interest to conciliate, and the finest feature of his character excited the disgust of courtiers who are less offended with soft words and deceitful promises than a candid and frank refusal.

Fond of polite literature, and possessing an exquisite taste in the liberal arts, he had not always patience for the routine of office: and though president of the council of war, and member of the secret conference, he could not be induced, unless from the most urgent necessity, to transact business at any other hours than from ten in the morning till two. The remainder of his time he dedicated to miscellaneous literature, to the arts, particularly to painting, of which he had formed a valuable collection, and to the company of a small and chosen society, presided by the countess Bathiani, to whom he was attached. Hence he sunk in the opinion of Charles, who affected great assiduity in business, and was no less minutely attentive to trifles than to affairs of the greatest consequence. Altheim did not fail to represent in the most odious light this conduct as highly disrespectful and productive of delays in the dispatch of public business; and though he could not sully the upright and incorruptible character of Eugene, he displayed in the strongest colours the scandalous venality of madame Bathiani, and of the persons who were most distinguished by the prince's confidence.' p. 53.

Notwithstanding the intrigues of a favourite, and the ingratitude of a master, when, after the unfortunate campaign of 1733, the affairs of Austria seemed to be reduced to the most critical emergency, the emperor himself looked to Eugene alone as the support of his tottering throne. That general, already far advanced in years, appeared at the first call, took upon himself the supreme command, and, though thwarted by the interference of the council of Vienna, and hampered by the obstinacy of the imperial generals who pretended to an equal share in the direction of the war, proved himself in this his last campaign, not only

in skill and activity, but in self-denial and magnanimous forbearance, still more truly great than while he appeared before all Europe as the successful emulator of the glories of Marlborough. Nor were his transcendent abilities confined to the operations of the field. All his political powers were again called into action and exerted with unremitting energy in rousing the maritime nations to resist the baleful influence of France. The letter to Diemar, his agent in London, of which Mr. Coxe has here given us a translation from among the Walpole papers, is a most valuable and authentic evidence of his vigorous mind and of his broad and liberal views of policy. But the selfish spirit of trade had already struck its roots deeply into the vital constitution of Britain, and the system of policy adopted by sir Robert Walpole rendered ineffectual all his entreaties and remonstrances.

The same year, and almost the same month, witnessed the rejoicings of the court of Vienna for the union of Maria Theresa to the duke of Lorraine, and its mourning for the death of its hero.

‘ That great man preserved his abilities and spirits, even in a very advanced age; and after having personally braved the most imminent perils in many battles and sieges, in which he was often the first to mount the breach, he died tranquilly at Vienna in the night of the 20th of April 1736, in the 73d year of his age\*.

‘ Every honour was paid to the memory of Eugene that the gratitude of the sovereign could dictate. The body was embalmed, and the heart sent to Turin to be deposited in the royal tomb with the ashes of his illustrious ancestors. The corpse lay in grand state for three days, with the coat of mail, helmet, and gauntlets hung over its head, and was interred in the metropolitan church of St. Stephen. Charles himself, with his whole court, assisted incognito at the ceremony, the pall was supported by sixteen general officers, and the funeral was solemnized with the same honours as were paid to the remains of the imperial family.’  
p. 159.

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\* ‘ Mr. Robinsen to Lord Harrington. *Vienna, April 21, 1736.*

‘ When prince Eugene's servants went into his chamber this morning, they found him extinguished in his bed like a taper. He dined yesterday as usual, and played cards at night with his ordinary company, but with such appearance as prognosticated to nice observers the crisis of his life. The strongest instances of his best friends and servants could not prevail upon him to take the least remedy to loosen the phlegm which he had not natural force enough to throw from his stomach, and which, to judge by the little pain he seemed to feel in the day-time, must have suffocated him but very gently in the night. In a word, my lord, his life was glorious, and his death easy.’

With regard to the foreign transactions of this reign, and the general state of Europe, much useful information is dispersed through the body of the work. The wild and eccentric schemes of Alberoni, the mission of Ripperda, the politics of cardinal Fleury, and, above all, the principles and measures of our British cabinet, are detailed with great perspicuity, and illustrated by many very curious particulars, collected from those great magazines of intelligence, the collections of state papers, of which Mr. Coxe has made such extensive use.

The evil effects of the celebrated barrier-treaty of 1715, are accurately stated and explained. Mr. Coxe might have added, that it presents one of the earliest examples of that fatal system of commercial policy which has invariably actuated our councils from that day to the present, with which the glory of Britain, nay, the very existence of Britain, has been most absurdly identified, which has procured for us the universal hatred of Europe, which has plunged us into all our existing difficulties, and threatens finally, if persisted in with the same obstinate infatuation, to involve in its baneful consequences our destruction.

During the life of Charles the sixth, his daughter Maria Theresa was so far from having any share in business, that she seems to have been sedulously brought up in ignorance of state affairs\* ; yet the genius of this extraordinary woman could not be concealed, but displayed itself to the observation even of discerning strangers long before the period of her advancement to the throne of Hungary. She was only in her eighteenth year when Mr. Robinson wrote to the British secretary in the following terms respecting her :

‘She is a princess of the highest spirit ; her father’s losses are her own. She reasons already ; she enters into affairs ; she admires his virtues, but condemns his mismanagement ; and is of a temper so formed for rule and ambition, as to look upon him as little more than her administrator. Notwithstanding this lofty humour by day, she sighs and pines all night for her duke of Lorraine. If she sleeps it is only to dream of him, if she wakes it is but to talk of him to the lady in waiting ; so that there is no more probability of her forgetting the very individual government, and the very individual husband, which she thinks herself born to, than of her forgiving the authors of her losing either.’  
p. 154.

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\* This, though asserted by Mr. Coxe, seems to imply a contradiction to what appears from Mr. Robinson’s letter.

This was written at a time when the Spanish party had gained a great ascendancy in the Imperial cabinet, and had persuaded Charles to think of bestowing his daughter on a Spanish prince. The firmness which she displayed on this occasion rendered the scheme abortive, and gave ample testimony of the exalted fortitude of which she afterwards stood in ample need, and which she displayed in so striking a manner. We may be inclined to ask how Mr. Robinson got his information respecting the sleeping and waking dreams of the princess. Perhaps from her lady in waiting. However, it is certain, no less from this instance than from the whole tenor of her future history, that her private domestic attachments were of the strongest nature. Her affection for her husband, formed in childhood, continued through life with the most unshaken firmness, and appears to have suffered no diminution, even in consequence of his numerous infidelities to herself, of which (with almost unexampled magnanimity) she constantly affected ignorance, and evinced the most cordial forgiveness. If thus exemplary as a wife, very few characters in history can support a comparison with hers, in true maternal affection, in firm and unremitted attention to parental duties.

In the twenty-fourth year of her age she was called, by her father's death, to the administration of all the Austrian dominions, contested on the one hand by the elector of Bavaria, and threatened with the most formidable embarrassments on the other by the young and ambitious representative of the house of Brandenburg. The claims of the elector rested on very solid grounds, on the force of many successive family-compacts, abrogated, it is true, by the pragmatic sanction, but still subsisting in conscience, notwithstanding the pretended effect of that iniquitous instrument. Those of Frederick the second were the mere pretexts of wanton ambition: they rested on forgotten genealogies, and abandoned cessions of the middle ages, and extended no farther, in the first instance, than to the possession of four duchies in the province of Silesia.

All Europe admired the intrepidity with which the young queen prepared to meet both these powerful rivals, before the unprincipled and profligate government of France had manifested its long-concealed intentions of interfering in the contest. The two hostile powers acted without concert, their views being totally disunited. The king of Prussia made the first aggression by invading Silesia at the conclusion of the year 1740. His demands were, in the mean time, signified in the most peremptory and insolent manner by his agent, count Gotter, to the court of Vienna; and met with

the same firm and dignified refusal both from the queen and the duke of Lorraine her husband. In the space of three or four months the whole province was overrun by the Prussian forces, who were confirmed in the possession of their rapid conquests by the event of the battle of Molwitz.

Of this most singular action, during the course of which the king, believing his army to be effectually vanquished, retreated with precipitation from the field of battle; sought shelter, by mistake, in a fortress occupied by Austrian troops; escaped, almost miraculously, from being made prisoner at the very moment that his arms, by a sudden revolution of fortune, proved decidedly victorious; and, after riding backwards and forwards, for the most part alone, over a distance of fifty miles, returned to his camp and found his soldiers (whom he had supposed to be beaten) in the full exultation of conquest; a very minute and curious account is given from the letters of Mr. Robinson, written upon the unquestionable authority of the celebrated Maupertuis, who was a companion of the king's flight, and was actually made prisoner at his side in consequence of the mistake above mentioned.

The conquest of Silesia produced no effect, but that of the most violent indignation; on the mind of Maria Theresa; but the sudden avowal of the designs of France, the formation of a strict confederacy between that formidable power, Bavaria, and Prussia, roused the attention of her ally the king of England, and induced him, not to declare war in her favour, but to use his best exertions to effect a pacification, at least with Prussia. Lord Hyndford was employed in the negotiations commenced under this view with the court of Berlin, while Mr. Robinson's more unhappy destiny was to attempt the conciliation of Maria Theresa, and afterwards to act as the agent of reciprocal proposals. Their letters afford new and very interesting pictures of both the great personages with whom they were respectively concerned.

Lord Hyndford was authorised to propose the cession of the duchy of Glogau as the price of the king's friendship, to which Frederick only answered,

\* At the beginning of the war I might have been contented with this proposal; but after the expence I have incurred, and the success of my arms, the offer of one duchy is too small. Shall I again give them battle, and drive them out of Silesia? You will then see that I shall receive other proposals; and the queen of Hungary will tender better conditions; not less than all Lower Silesia, with the town of Breslau, which lie contiguous to my territories.' When lord Hyndford urged that his majesty then had



it in his power to conclude an honourable peace, and to shew his magnanimity, by restoring the tranquillity of Germany, Frederick impatiently interrupted him: "Do not, my lord, talk to me of magnanimity! a prince ought first to consult his own interests. I am not averse to peace; but I expect to have four duchies, and will have them." P. 244.

Maria Theresa and her ministers had been hitherto buoyed up by the vain presumption that France would not league with her enemies against her. Mr. Robinson was condemned to the unpleasant task of bringing her the first information of the treaty with Prussia.

'Maria Theresa listened to the communication with profound silence; and, in reply to his representations, broke out into exclamations and sudden starts of passion, which shewed the despair and agony of her mind. Adverting to his mission to the King of Prussia\*, she said, "Not only for political reasons, but from conscience and honour, I will not consent to part with much in Silesia. I am even afraid you will not be authorized to offer Glogau, though perhaps I might be induced to part with that province if I could be secure of peace on all sides. But no sooner is one enemy satisfied than another starts up; another, and then another, must be contented, and all at my expence. I am convinced of your good will; but I pity you, your mission to Silesia will be as fruitless as that of count Gotter was here; remember my words." When Mr. Robinson represented that it was in her majesty's power to render his mission successful, and urged that her own fate, the fate of the duke, of her whole family, and of all Europe, depended upon her yielding to the hard necessity of the times, she exclaimed, "What would I not give except in Silesia? Let him take all we have in Guelderland; and if he is not to be gained by that sacrifice, others may. Let the princes of the empire, let the king your master, only speak to the elector of Bavaria, he may be more flexible, and means may be found to gain him. Oh, the king your master, let him only march, let him march only!" No other answer could be drawn from this high-spirited woman.' P. 246.

At length her consent to the offer of an accommodation with Prussia was rather extorted than granted; and Mr. Robinson entered on his mission with the following *happy* auspices:

'She occasionally exclaimed to Mr. R. who expressed his apprehensions that some of the conditions would be rejected by the

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\* Mr. Robinson had been instructed to offer his interference in taking the queen's proposals to Frederic.

king, "I wish he may reject them!" When he took his leave, she recommended her interests to his care; and said, "Save Limburgh, if possible, were it only for the quiet of my conscience; God knows how I shall answer for the cession, having sworn to the states of Brabant never to alienate any part of their country."

On the 5th of August 1741, Mr. Robinson had his audience with Frederick at Breslau, of which we are presented with the following most interesting details.

"After some desultory and unconnected conversation, in which the king stigmatized the answer of the court of Vienna as extremely impertinent, Mr. R. opened his commission with the offer of Austrian Guelderland, and a florid description of its value and importance. The King, without answering, turned to Count Podelwitz, and asked, "What have they yet left in Guelderland?" and when the minister replied, "almost nothing," he exclaimed, "Still beggarly offers! What! nothing but a paltry town for all my just pretensions in Silesia?" He here gave way to his indignation, &c.

Mr. Robinson then added Limburgh, which he puffed off with equal eloquence; but was interrupted by the king, who only ironically asked, 'how the queen could think of violating the barrier-treaty?'

"Neither the French or the Dutch have offended me, nor will I offend them by such *unlawful* acquisitions. Besides, who will guaranty them?" Mr. R. answering that the Queen would obtain the guaranty of England, Russia, Saxony, and even of the States General. "Guaranties!" rejoined the king, "who observes guaranties in these times? Has not France guarantied the Pragmatic Sanction? Has not England guarantied it? Why do you not all fly to her succour?"

Frederic continued for some time to talk on in the same strain of 'contempt and irony.' Then he expatiated on the advantages of his situation:

"I am at the head," he said, "of an invincible army, already master of a country which I will have, which I must have, and which is the only object of my views. My ancestors would rise out of their tombs to reproach me, should I abandon the rights they have transmitted to me. With what reputation can I live, should I lightly quit an enterprize, the first act of my reign, begun with reflection, prosecuted with firmness, and which ought to be maintained to the last extremity? I will sooner be crushed with my

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\* Which renders the Low-Countries inalienable.

whole army, than renounce my just rights in Silesia. Have I occasion for peace? Let those who want peace give me what I want: or let them fight me again, and be again beaten."

"This burst of real or affected indignation was accompanied by theatrical gestures; and, turning, as if to finish the conversation, he said to Mr. R. "I will accept no equivalent in the Low Countries, and since you have nothing to offer on the side of Silesia, all proposals are ineffectual. I will not only have the four duchies; but, as the court of Vienna has rejected that demand, I revoke it, and require all Lower Silesia, with the town of Breslau." After frequently and peremptorily repeating his last words, he added, "If the Queen does not satisfy me in six weeks, I will have four duchies more."

"His indignation seemed to be yet further inflamed by the offer of Glogau; and, reiterating his demand of all Lower Silesia, he said, "Return with this answer to Vienna; they who want peace will give me what I want." Robinson, not rebuffed, proposed a negotiation with the minister. "I am sick of ultimatums, I will hear no more of them; my part is taken. I again repeat my demand of all Lower Silesia: this is my final answer; and I will give no other." He then interrupted all further representations; and, taking off his hat, precipitately retired, with looks of high indignation, behind the interior curtain of his tent. Thus terminated this extraordinary conference; and Mr. Robinson returned to Presburgh without the smallest hope of bending the inflexible spirit of the king."

The extreme distress and danger to which Maria Theresa soon afterwards found herself reduced by pursuing the dictates of her haughty and inflexible temper, are well known; and every body recollects the history of her subsequent conduct; her coronation as queen of Hungary at Presburgh, her animated appeals to her Hungarian subjects, her heroic speech at the diet, and the incredible exertions made in her favour by the enthusiasm of the people. The letters of Mr. Robinson, who was present at the whole of this interesting scene, and who was himself strongly infected with the prevailing mania of admiration, have afforded Mr. Coxe some new details respecting events so often before described, which we should find great pleasure in transcribing, if we had not so far indulged ourselves in quotations already.

At length she was convinced of the necessity of gaining Frederic at any price, and an armistice was concluded, and a treaty commenced on the basis of an ultimatum delivered in the king's own words, the brevity and decision of which are strikingly characteristic:

"All Lower Silesia; the river Neiss for the boundary. The

town of Neiss, as well as Glatz. Beyond the Oder, the antient limits to continue between the duchies of Brieg and Oppelen. Breslau for us. The affairs of religion in statu quo. No dependence on Bohemia : a cession for ever. In return, we will proceed no further. We will besiege Neiss for form. The commandant shall surrender and depart. We will go quietly into winter quarters, and the Austrian party may go where they will. Let the whole be concluded in twelve days." p. 267.

The recovery of Bohemia and the defeat and ruin of the French army (which would have been entire had not Belleisle saved its shattered reliques by a retreat one of the most perilous and difficult recorded in history) followed with wonderful rapidity in the course of events, and placed the queen of Hungary in a situation not only of safety, but of great superiority. The fortitude she had displayed in adversity, was not answered by moderation in prosperity. Ambition, the vice of greatness, kept more than even measure with success; and we are sorry, for the sake of our national honour, to remark that England did not take an active part in her alliance with Austria, nor declare war in her favour, till after a concurrence of favourable circumstances had rendered her more than a match for her enemies, and she began to form schemes, not of just defence and opposition to aggression, but of unjust and presumptuous aggrandizement.

Perhaps it is not too much to assert, that the war which desolated Europe was rekindled and protracted by our untimely interference; and, far from thinking that the transactions of the reign of Maria Theresa tend to establish Mr. Coxe's doctrine respecting continental alliances, they afford, in our opinion, many striking proofs how much better it would have been both for ourselves and all other nations, had we more rightly estimated the invaluable privilege of our insular situation.

The policy of our subsequent measures admits still less of defence. The high and haughty language which we assumed towards our allies during the negotiations at Aix la Chapelle; the precipitancy with which we forced Austria into the signature of the definitive treaty; the insolent tone adopted by us in the discussions relative to the election of the archduke Joseph as king of the Romans, and respecting the most offensive clauses of the baleful barrier-treaty produced an effect which, however unforeseen by our short-sighted politicians, was reasonably to be expected by persons not blinded with prejudice, nor hardened by national arrogance. It was owing solely to the infatuation

of our misguided councils, that our ancient ally threw herself into the arms of her most inveterate enemy, and that the whole political system of Europe experienced a sudden and unnatural change. The steps which immediately led to this extraordinary revolution, and the views of its prime mover, Prince Kaunitz, are detailed with great perspicuity, and in a very interesting manner. In the course of those singular negotiations commenced under his auspices with the court of Versailles, the character of the Empress appears in somewhat a new light.

‘ During his embassy, he (Kaunitz) laboured with continual assiduity and address to soften the inveterate enmity of the French court, and to loosen the connexion between France and Prussia. He insinuated to the ministers that the aggrandizement of Prussia was their work, and that they had hitherto received no other return than ingratitude from a sovereign who was governed solely by his own interest. To strengthen these impressions which gradually began to take effect, he paid assiduous court to the Marchioness of Pompadour, with whom he had opened a correspondence during the negotiation for the peace of Aix la Chapelle, and employed every species of flattery to induce her to second his views. At his suggestion Maria Theresa did not scruple to write in the most confidential terms of friendship and equality to the mistress of Louis the Fifteenth, and when Kaunitz apologized for requiring so great a sacrifice, she replied, “ Have I not flattered Farinelli ?” \* The low-born favourite, enraptured with the attentions and familiarity of the greatest sovereign in Europe, employed all her influence to promote the wished-for alliance.’

The very interesting and romantic incidents of the seven years’ war, which followed closely upon the signature of the treaty of Versailles, have probably never been described with more fidelity than in the details of Mr. Coxe ; nor do we by any means refuse him credit for the spirit with which he has executed this part of his history. The character, and singular rise, of Marshal Loudon, is principally taken from Wraxall’s entertaining memoirs. The following anecdote of royal courtesy affords a very pleasing respite from the fatiguing detail of horrors.

‘ During the blockade of Prague, Loudon was foremost in various sallies ; and continuing to distinguish himself at the head of the Croats, was entrusted with the command of 4,000 light horse,

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\* The celebrated singer, at that time in high favour with the queen of Spain.



and appointed major-general; the patent which conferred this rank, falling into the hands of some Prussian hussars, Frederic dispatched a trumpet with it, and expressed his satisfaction in being instrumental to the promotion of so gallant an officer.' p. 431.

We cannot refuse ourselves the pleasure of transcribing one more anecdote, which we do not recollect to have met with in any former account of the life and actions of Frederic. He passed the night after his fatal defeat at the battle of Cunersdorf, with the small remnant of his army, amounting only to 1000 men, on the same ground where he had taken post before the engagement.

'A Prussian officer, who was present in the action, thus describes the situation of the King early on the ensuing morning: "I saw the King the next morning, stretched upon a little straw, reposing among the ruins of a farm house, in the village of Oetcher, which had been destroyed by the Cossacks. He slept with as much soundness and tranquillity as if he had been secure from all dangers; his hat partly covered his face; his drawn sword lay by his side; and two adjutants were snoring at his feet; a single sentinel mounted guard.'

The emperor Francis of Lorraine died on the 18th of August 1765. He was, during his whole life, a mere cypher of royalty. Of his disgraceful servility to his imperious consort, some curious anecdotes are related which seem to place him on a level with one of Foote's most celebrated characters. On the other hand, we discover in his conduct traits of generosity and of exalted heroism in the cause of humanity sufficient to make atonement for a multitude of weaknesses.

From the period of his death, the life of Maria Theresa presents us with a striking contrast of wise and benevolent government at home, and of the most infamous and detestable excesses of rapacity and ambition abroad. The atrocious project for the dismemberment of Poland united her in the bonds of villany with her old and seemingly eternal enemy, the king of Prussia; nor is it the smallest justification of her conduct that the plot was laid, not in the court of Vienna, but in that of Berlin. We gladly pass over this most horrible transaction, as well as the no less unjust system of aggression pursued in the affairs of Bavaria, without comment, but cannot forbear remarking the aggravation of hypocrisy and affected sentiment in the correspondence between these two exalted ruffians, Frederic and Maria Theresa.

The fatal age of vicious sensibility and profligate immorality in courts had now commenced, and we close with disgust the page of history which records the nauseous blubbering of an old imperial Harridan\* over her canting visitor; and relates, to the honour of a prince, an anecdote of *soft humanity*, too maukish even for Werter's Charlotte,† at the same moment that it describes acts of the most abandoned perfidy, injustice, and unprincipled violence.

The character of the emperor Joseph the second resembles in many of its leading features that of his grandfather Charles the sixth; but some others are more peculiarly his own. Added to the obstinacy, inconsistency and love of meddling in all concerns, for which his predecessor was so remarkable, the childish ardour and restlessness of Joseph urged him to systems of innovation in the state and schemes of military glory, which produced nothing but rebellion in his provinces and disgrace to his arms.

In his internal government, the first object to attract our notice is the *grand scheme* promulgated shortly after his accession, of which the distinguishing characteristics are a weak, trivial, puerile thirst for innovation, a contempt for all established prejudices, and a spirit of despotism thinly veiled by affected philanthropy and moderation. This *grand scheme*, absurd in principle, and impossible in practice, was pertinaciously adhered to till it produced the separation of all the Low Countries from the throne of Austria, and such discontents in Hungary as threatened the most violent commotions, if not the counterpart of the revolution in the Netherlands. The wantonness of his proceeding in removing the crown and regalia from Presburgh is only equalled by the scrupulous duplicity with which he persisted in feeding the people with *promises* of fidelity to the constitution, while he refused to sanction those promises by the obligation of his *coronation oath*; as if the *promises* of princes were not binding, nor their injustice less glaring if placed by fraud and equivocation beyond the strict legal definition of perjury. If such be the *conscience* of courts it would be better for the world that the word *conscience* be for ever excluded from courtly vocabularies. Even the best of Joseph's plans of innovation, his orders for religious toleration, and for the abolition of feudal vassalage, are degraded into acts of senseless oppression by the precipitancy and violence

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\* The empress Catherine *shed tears* at parting with Joseph.

† See the anecdote of the Archduke Ferdinand related in p. 563.

of their execution. We distinguish, in the annals of his reign, some wise regulations respecting trade; yet before they could have produced any beneficial effect, the whole system was again overturned for the sake of an unnecessary and aggressive war with Turkey.

The history of his reign would, in many instances, afford cause for a more hearty laugh than the best written burlesque, were it not stifled by the reflection that many of these sources of our amusement, though *sport* to us, were *death* to five and twenty millions of groaning subjects. Others however, it must be confessed, are purely laughable: such are some of the extracts which Mr. Coxe has given us from his childish 'politico-moral-catechism,' in itself the most ridiculous contrivance that ever issued from a royal cabinet.

In his foreign relations, the same inconsistency, the same headstrong obstinacy, the same weakness of head, and the same badness of heart, are conspicuous. He was from his earliest years ambitious (if so imbecile a mind can be said to have been capable of a passion so speciously noble as ambition) of military glory. His childish emulation of Frederick the second hurried the court of Austria to the flagrant injustice of the Bavarian war, and to the no less criminal and impolitic concurrence with Russia in her schemes for the dismemberment of Turkey. When he commanded in person disgrace always followed his steps; and the curses of all the generals whom he involved in his own dishonour, justly repaid his ignorance, precipitation and folly. We again laugh heartily at such instances of trifling imbecility as the following: During the Bavarian war, 'his toilette (in the words of a panegyrical biographer) was that of a common soldier, his wardrobe that of a serjeant, business his recreation, and his life perpetual motion.' How would he or his soldiers have been otherwise than the better, had his toilette been that of a prince, his wardrobe that of an emperor, had he seldom or never indulged in the *recreation* of business, and always remained quiet, making buttons in the closet! In such men as Joseph, industry and activity are the worst of sins, and indolence an exalted virtue.

We might have some little respect for his character, could it be said that he inherited the *domestic* virtues of his ancestors; but the picture is so far from being improved, that it becomes dirtier than ever in this more modest light. He was a bad brother; and a most cold, unfeeling, brutal husband, at least to the unfortunate princess of Bavaria, his second wife. As a father, luckily perhaps for posterity, he has not afforded us the power of estimating his conduct.

His professions of humanity, justice, and philosophy, for a long while dazzled the eyes of Europe; but now that time has removed the veil, we shall not scruple to rank him among the most weak, if not among the most wicked of princes. The epitaph composed by him for himself is inaccurate only in a single word: "Here lies a sovereign, who, with the *best* intentions, never carried a single project into execution." The reign of his successor, Leopold, was so short and so unhappy in prospect, that we have hardly power to ascertain his real character, or to judge of the consequences which a prolongation of his life might have tended to produce. On the whole, though in intention he was wiser and more equitable than his brother, he seems to have wanted the energy and decision of mind so necessary at the turbulent period of the French Revolution.

Mr. Coxe's attention, as an historian, is now naturally drawn to the origin and progress of that most important event; but we can distinguish no depth of research and no novelty of remark in this part of his labours that should entitle it to any particular notice from us. Indeed our interest in his history ceases with the termination of the seven years' war, after which it is rarely enlivened by those very curious details which his access to state papers and other unpublished documents enabled him to furnish during the earlier years of the reign of Maria Theresa, and the whole of that of her predecessor.

Our remarks and extracts, which have been extended to a very unusual length, are sufficiently copious to enable our readers to form their own judgment of the merits of the work; concerning which we shall only add, that though not in our opinion entitled to the highest praise of history, it possesses extensive claims to notice, of a nature unusual in this age of republication, from the quantity of original information contained in it, and the ample means which it affords of setting right many mistaken, and elucidating many obscure and uncertain, points of character and policy.

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ART. V.—*An History of Jamaica; with Observations on the Climate, Scenery, Trade, Productions, Negroes, Slave Trade, Diseases of Europeans, Customs, Manners, and Dispositions of the Inhabitants. To which is added, an Illustration of the Advantages which are likely to result from the Abolition of the Slave Trade.* By Robert Renny, Esq. 4to. Cawthorne. 1807.

JAMAICA was discovered by Columbus in his second

voyage, in the year 1494. Its original name has undergone but little alteration, being called by the natives *Xaymaca*, which signified in their language, a land abounding with springs. They are represented to have been far more lively, acute, and ingenious, than the inhabitants of any of the other islands, and considerably more advanced in agriculture, and several of the arts and improvements of civilized life. They appear to have been an hundred thousand in number when the island was first visited by the Spaniards, but in the space of a very few years, such was the cruelty and impolicy of their new masters, not an individual remained. But however small might have been the esteem in which the lives of this unhappy race were held, when avarice was abetted by superstition and encouraged by impunity, Mr. Renny has been somewhat hasty and injudicious in adopting, we know not on what authority, such idle stories as the following :

‘ Some of the most zealous of these adorers of the Holy Virgin forced their unhappy captives into the water, and after administering to them the rites of baptism, cut their throats the next moment, to prevent their apostacy: others made and kept a vow, to hang or burn thirteen every morning, in honour of Christ and his twelve apostles.’

Mankind listens to the marvellous with credulous avidity ; and even in our own times tales have been told of the barbarity of living individuals, which it is easier to invent than to substantiate. But the elegant historian of America has undertaken to defend the Spaniards from the improbable charge of systematic and gratuitous cruelty, under which their character had so long laboured ; and the philosophical investigator of truth learns to suspend his belief of every tale, that deviates from the laws of nature and the character of man.

Jamaica continued to form a part of the Spanish dominions till the year 1655, when it was reduced by the English forces under Penn and Venables, who determined to attempt the conquest of this island, as some atonement for the disgraceful failure of their expedition against St. Domingo, which a master like Cromwell could not be expected to pass over with impunity. His displeasure accordingly appears to have been somewhat mitigated, as he only committed them to prison ; and proceeded to make the most of their unlooked-for conquest, which, however inferior to that which he had in view, he soon saw would be productive of signal advantages to England. It has ever since been subject to Great Britain, and is by far the most valuable of her settlements in the West



Indies, equalling the united value of the whole of the other islands.

Such being the concise history of Jamaica from its discovery to the present day, it may excite some surprize how the present author should have swelled it out into an entire quarto volume. In the annals of a dependent colony, which necessarily moves as a satellite round the mother country, little more can be expected, and nothing more is here given, than a catalogue of the successive governors, diversified with an occasional account of a fire, an earthquake, a hurricane, an insurrection of the negroes, and of the losses occasioned to the inhabitants by each of these respective calamities. The only thing which we think worthy of transcription, is an event that took place on the last-mentioned occasion. It is an instance of barbarity, which, while it shocks the feelings, derogates from the boasted humanity of the English character. Necessity is alleged as the excuse; but under a mild and paternal government like that in which we glory, we are sorry that 'the plea of tyrants' should ever be resorted to as an excuse for inhumanity. In 1760, during the administration of Governor Moore, an insurrection of the negroes took place, which however was quelled with little trouble, and 'it was thought prudent,' says our author, 'to make a terrible example of some of the insurgents.'

'Of three of them who had been concerned in the murders committed at Ballard's Valley, one was condemned to be burnt, and the other two to be hung up alive in irons, and left to perish with hunger in that dreadful situation. The wretch condemned to be burnt was made to sit on the ground, and his body being chained on an iron stake, the fire was applied to his feet. He never uttered a groan, but saw, with the most perfect composure, his lower extremities reduced to ashes; after which, one of his arms having been accidentally loosened, he snatched a brand from the fire that was consuming him, and flung it in the face of his executioner. The other two unhappy wretches were suspended on a gibbet erected on the parade in Kingston. They were indulged, very improperly, with a hearty meal before they were hung up. They never uttered the least complaint, except that of being cold during the night. They often conversed freely with their countrymen; and on the seventh day from the time of their suspension, so far were they from being exhausted, or making any sorrowful complaints, that they laughed immoderately at something that occurred. The next morning one of them silently expired; and on the ninth day the other died without a groan.'

The administration of the affairs of Jamaica is in the hands of the governor, who is appointed by the crown, and has

nearly the same powers with the king ; the council, twelve in number, who are also in general nominated by the crown, and chosen from the most intelligent and respectable inhabitants of the island, representing the house of peers in this country ; while the house of assembly, consisting of forty-three members, who are elected by the freeholders, imitates as much as circumstances will admit, the English House of Commons. All their bills, except those of a private nature, have the force of laws, when sanctioned by the governor. The crown, however, retains the power of final rejection.

Charles II. who thought that he could govern at home without the aid of his parliament, naturally disliked its West Indian counterpart. He accordingly endeavoured to establish a despotic form of government in Jamaica, and to prevent the meeting of the house of assembly, except for the single purpose of voting the usual supplies, and of passing such laws as should be suggested by the governor and ratified by the crown, on which also a perpetual revenue was required to be settled. The assembly strenuously resisted this attempt upon the liberties of themselves and their posterity, and the English ministry, with great reluctance, and with a very bad grace, was obliged to withdraw its pretensions. A degree of shyness, however, still subsisted between this colony and several successive English administrations for a period of fifty years, during which time the sovereigns frequently withheld their assent from acts of the legislature of Jamaica ; till, in the year 1728, a compromise took place, by which an irrevocable and permanent revenue was granted to the crown, and his majesty on his part consented to confirm all the laws which had been, or might be hereafter, enacted by the legislature.

In the calamitous war which took place between England and her North American colonies ; Jamaica was neither an unconcerned nor a disinterested spectator. Though unable, from her insular situation, to co-operate with her continental brethren, she could not fail to be a well-wisher to a cause in which her dearest interests were very materially concerned. The assembly went so far as to present a memorial and petition to the king, couched in strong and impressive language, in favour of their oppressed fellow colonists. But their address, which was in unison with the sentiments of every enlightened and patriotic friend of his country, sounded in vain in the ears of a perverse and tyrannical ministry ; their voice, like that of Moloch, was ' still for war,' and the result was, what the result of every

contest ought to be, when the spirit of independence struggles against oppression.

When Jamaica was under the dominion of the Spaniards, no more of the soil was cultivated than was necessary for the subsistence of the slothful inhabitants, and their whole trade consisted in the sale of a few cocoas which grew spontaneously. It was not long in the hands of the English before it exhibited a very different appearance, and soon began to be a fertile source of opulence to the mother country. Sugar, with its concomitants, rum and molasses, is the principal and most valuable production of the island. It was first introduced about the year 1660, by the governor, Sir Thomas Moddiford, who had for many years been an eminent planter at Barbadoes, where its cultivation had long been prosecuted with success. A competent notion of its progressive increase may be formed from the following statement: in the year 1722, 11,000 hogsheads of sugar were exported from Jamaica. In 1802, the exportation amounted to 140,000 hogsheads. Several other commodities are cultivated in considerable quantity, particularly coffee, cotton, pimento, and ginger. The former, in many points of view tends highly to the advantage of the colony, as smaller capitals can be employed in its cultivation than is required by a sugar plantation; its average profits are more considerable in proportion, and the produce of it more equal and certain than that which arises from the cultivation of any plant in the new world. The cultivation of ginger requires no greater skill or attention than that of potatoes in this country, and is carried on nearly in the same manner. Pimento, known also by the names of Jamaica pepper, Spanish pepper, and all-spice, grows spontaneously and in great abundance in many parts of the island. This singular plant

‘is purely a child of nature, and seems to mock all the labours of man, in his endeavours to extend and improve its growth; not one attempt in fifty to propagate the young plants, or to raise them from the seeds, in parts of the country where it is found growing spontaneously, having succeeded. The usual method of forming a new pimento plantation (or walk) is nothing more than to appropriate a piece of land in the neighbourhood of a plantation already existing, or in a country where the scattered trees are found in a native state, the woods of which being cut down, the trees are suffered to remain on the ground till they become rotten and perish. In the course of twelve months, after the first season, abundance of young pimento plants will be found growing vigorously in all parts of the land, being probably produced from ripe berries scattered by the birds, while the fallen trees afford them

shelter and shade. At the end of two years, it will be proper to give the land a thorough cleansing, leaving such only of the pimento trees as have a good appearance. In this manner, delightful groves will soon be formed, which, except during the first four or five years, will require very little attention.'

The plantation of cocoas in Jamaica has entirely ceased, and the indigo manufactory, by which immense fortunes were formerly realized, is now rapidly on the decline. The neglect of both is owing, in the opinion of Mr. Bryan Edwards, to the excessive duties imposed upon them by the British government.

Mr. Renny gives a minute description of the customs, habits, proceedings, amusements, and condition of the slaves, from which it would appear that their general system of living is by no means so intolerable as we are apt to suppose. Were this system of mildness, to which he bears witness, secured to them by right, and individuals unable to infringe upon it with impunity, there might be comparatively little to complain of; but depending as it does on the arbitrary will of an uncultivated, capricious, and interested master, the depravity of human nature compels us to believe that the aggregate of misery must be extreme, and to distrust as partial or superficial, every statement that might tend to reconcile us to a continuation of slavery.

The free people of colour in the West Indies are also much to be lamented. Their condition calls loudly for redress.

'However rich they may be, their evidence in criminal cases against white persons, or even against people of colour, is inadmissible, and in this respect, it has been with justice observed, that they are placed in a worse situation than slaves, who have masters interested in their protection, and who, if their slaves were maltreated, have a right to recover damages, by bringing an action against the aggressor. The mulattoes are also denied the privilege of being eligible to serve in parochial vestries and general assemblies, of holding commissions in the black and mulatto companies of militia, or of acting in any office of public trust, even so low as that of a constable. They are precluded also from voting at elections for members of the house of assembly. They are likewise prevented, as much as possible, from acquiring too great an influence in the island by means of wealth. In an act of the assembly passed in the year 1762, it is declared, that a testamentary devise from a white person to a negro or mulatto not born in wedlock, of a real or personal estate, exceeding in value two thousand pounds currency, shall be void, and the property shall descend to the heir at law.

'These regulations degrade the mulattoes, and by depriving

them of that great stimulus to laudable exertions, the respect of their neighbours, render them equally useless and miserable; but still what one would not at first view have expected, they have uniformly, even in the most dangerous times, remained loyal to government, in the most exemplary manner. When cruel to their negroes, they are certainly more so than even the most unfeeling of the whites; and it is probably on this account, that the mulattoes and negroes have a strong and constant hatred of each other. In their intercourse with the whites the mulattoes are humble, submissive, unassuming, and even kind. They are conscious of their condition, and bending, as they do, with meekness under the rod, they cannot but excite the commiseration of the generous.

The females of this class are more objects of compassion than the males; their education is totally neglected. They have no ideas of a dignified propriety of thought or of conduct; and their notions of virtue are confused and depraved. They are never allowed to expect the enjoyment of the most perfect of all sublunary happiness, especially to a female, the pleasures of the marriage state. The young men of their own rank and condition are too much degraded to think of marriage, and for a white man to marry a mulatto would be a degradation, which would for ever exclude him from the respectable company of his own colour, and sink him to a level with those who are excluded from all consideration in society. The utmost ambition of a young mulatto female, therefore, is to become the mistress of a white man, in which station she behaves with a fidelity, modesty, tenderness, and prudence, which are highly exemplary, and which might furnish an important lesson to many a married European lady. They are all highly and honourably distinguished by their tender care and compassion for the sick, tending them with the most constant assiduity, from mere motives of benevolence, expecting no reward, and unambitious of applause. They are very affectionate mothers, and display towards their children the most unbounded attachment.

Something might surely be done for the relief of this unfortunate and unjustly degraded class of individuals. They are excluded from all society of the whites; even those of the lowest class of the latter, disdaining to sit at the same table with the richest mulatto.\* They are despised by the whites; hated, feared,

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\* The following is an example of this fact, well known by the author, and is chiefly mentioned, as it is by no means extraordinary: In the year 1799, the vessel in which he was a passenger, bound to Jamaica, touched at Barbadoes. The cabin passengers went ashore to enjoy themselves, and to gratify their curiosity with the first view of the new world. Among others, there was a young gentleman of fortune, a mulatto, who had been sent to Europe for his education, and who had conducted himself during the voyage with such singular prudence and propriety as to gain the good will, and even the respect of all his fellow-passengers. He even displayed in conversation a highly cultivated mind, and very respectable talents. Going ashore with those who had been his friends and companions during the voyage, he went with them into a tavern in Bridge Town, the



and envied by the blacks; and though possessed of property, talents, and amiable dispositions, are not only prevented from being useful, but are, in some degree, rendered miserable in themselves and a burden upon society.

‘The free blacks are nearly in the same situation with the mulattoes; and indeed, in their present degraded state, their freedom is of very little use, in advancing their happiness. Their customs, manners, and employments are so similar to those of the slaves, that it would be difficult, if not impossible, to make any characteristic distinction.’

It remains to say, that Mr. Renny manifests the faults of a young and of a modern author. His language is figurative to a culpable, and in his descriptions, to a ridiculous degree. And in the true style of a modern writer, he has introduced by way of appendix, a large mass of irrelevant matter, such as a copy of the declaration of the North American colonists previous to the breaking out of the war with this country; their address to all the other British colonies; the petition of the House of Assembly at Jamaica to his majesty in their favour; some acts passed by that house, which alone occupy nearly forty pages. These are backed by two detached disquisitions of the author’s own composing, on the utility of establishing a colony in South America, and on the abolition of the slave trade. A letter from a friend, on some subject or other, would most probably have closed the volume, had not the correspondent chanced to quote a few lines of Beattie, which operate with such an electric shock on the patriotic feelings of our Caledonian author, that he bursts out into a comparison or paraphrase.

With gold and gems if Chilian mountains glow,  
If bleak and barren Scotia’s hills arise,  
There plague and poison, lust and rapine grow;  
Here peaceful are the vales, and clear the skies,  
And freedom fires the soul, and sparkles in the eyes.

BEATTIE.

The above is thus *done* into another species of verse by Mr. Renny :

‘Hail, SCOTIA! lovely land! my parent-soil!  
Dearest, tho’ bleakest, half of this bless’d isle?’

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capital of the island. Having ordered some sangaree (wine mixed with water) they had not time to be seated, when a waiter came rudely up to the young mulatto, and taking him by the arm, said, “Sir, you cannot come in here; you must not sit down with gentlemen.” The young mulatto literally started with indignation, followed the waiter into an empty room, and burst into tears.

More dear to me thy heath on moss-grown hills,  
 Than all the golden ore of Indian rills :  
 Thy thatch'd-clad cots, and *homely, healthful fare,*  
 Than Indian palaces, *and all the luxuries there ;*  
 The fragrant breath of thy bean-blossom'd field  
 Than all the odours spicy groves *can yield ;*  
 There murd'rous vapours taint the constant gale,  
 Here grateful breezes play o'er every vale ;  
 There, pale, diseas'd men, sicken as they grow,  
 Here, health and courage sparkle on the brow ;  
 There, *rage wild,* brutal lust, and fierce desire,  
 Here, love ennobles with his hallowed fire ;  
 There, man, a slave, *oft* trembles at the rod,  
 Here, men are free, and know they're sons of God !

The ideas of Beattie cannot be said to be improved by being clothed in the verses of Renny. Scotland, which is justly proud of the first poet of the present day, will not anticipate much increase of national fame from this specimen of Mr. Renny's muse. He will rather rejoice to hear from the author's own information, that the poem, of which the above verses form a part, 'may very probably never be finished.'

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ART. VI.—*A Treatise on Hernia; being the Essay which gained the Prize offered by the Royal College of Surgeons in the Year 1806. Illustrated with Plates. By William Lawrence, Member of that College, and Demonstrator of Anatomy at St. Bartholomew's Hospital. 8vo. Callow. 1806.*

THIS treatise does much honour to its ingenious author, and to the society to which it owes its birth. The institution of an annual prize by this college is a pleasing sign of its zeal for the progress of science and the public good. A fair and honourable opportunity will thus be afforded to genius and industry to become known to the public, modest merit may emerge from obscurity, and the afflicted will have a proper test of the talents of those in whom they are obliged to confide under the most trying circumstances. The dissertations to which the institution will give birth, though they may not perhaps greatly enlarge the boundaries of the art, may be expected to form an useful addition to the stock of written knowledge, by successively presenting a correct view of what has hitherto been effected in the various maladies or accidents which are the objects of surgery. The

first step towards future progress is to ascertain perfectly the space that has been already passed over.

Mr. Lawrence commences his work with an account of hernia in general, their causes, symptoms, and treatment, when reducible, and when irreducible. Of the strangulation of hernia, the immediate cause of their danger, he makes but two species: the inflammatory strangulation of young and strong subjects; and the slow strangulation which takes place in large and old hernias, which have often been protruded and replaced. Other kinds which have been noticed by surgical authors are rare, nor could the causes of the strangulation be ascertained previously to an operation, or the death of the patient. Richter has described what he is pleased to term a *spasmodic* strangulation as a species of frequent occurrence. The symptoms he enumerates are,—

‘La respiration courte et froide, le ventre tendu, gonflé, et cependant peu douloureux, le froid et la paleur de la mort, qu’on remarque au visage, aux extrémités, l’anxiété, l’agitation, le vomissement, le hocquet, le pouls petit et serré ne sont ils pas des preuves manifestes d’une maladie spasmodique? et ces symptômes paroissent souvent dans les premières momens de l’étranglement.” We are much pleased with Mr. Lawrence’s criticism on this passage, equally terse, brief, and decisive. He simply observes, ‘If these are the symptoms of a spasmodic stricture, every rupture which happens may be classed under this description.’ How many writers would have taken more pages than here are lines to say exactly the same thing!

The inflammatory strangulation is where the tumour is very small, but the patient in previous health and the inflammatory symptoms high. In these cases the surgeon is called upon to exercise all his promptitude and judgment, as death is often induced in a few hours when the case is mismanaged. Mr. Lawrence judiciously cautions the surgeon not to depend too much on the *taxis*, nor to waste precious time in an attempt, which, when it does no good, is apt to do mischief. Under these critical circumstances, a glyster made of infusion of tobacco, (which is on many accounts preferable to the injection of the smoke) should be immediately resorted to; upon the failure of which the operation is indispensable.

On the utility of bleeding there has been considerable diversity of opinion. Mr. Wilmer and Mr. Alanson have adduced arguments sufficiently convincing to prove that it cannot have any good effect in promoting the immediate re-

duction of a hernia. But when, on this account, they have condemned venesection altogether, not simply as nugatory, but as injurious, we have always felt it impossible to assent to this doctrine. A sudden protrusion of a portion of the contents of the abdomen has ever appeared to us similar to the infliction of a wound within this cavity; and though bleeding will not heal the wound, it may be of the greatest importance in keeping down inflammation, and in diminishing the hazard to which the system is exposed, either from the accident, or the measures which are necessary towards its relief. Mr. Lawrence's observations on this head are we think very correct. After condemning the indiscriminate employment of large and repeated bleedings, he adds,

‘ I think that the advocates and opponents of blood-letting have stated their opinions too strongly on the opposite sides of the question, and that a judicious practitioner will take a middle course between these two extremes. He will not with Pott use venesection in all instances, neither will he follow Mr. Wilmer in discarding it entirely from the treatment of hernia, but will restrict its employment to a certain class of cases.

‘ He will have recourse to it, when the strangulation is of the inflammatory kind; when the hernia is small and recent; the abdomen tense and painful, and the patient young, strong, and plethoric. Two cases are related in the excellent practical observations of Mr. Hay, (p. 124.) which will serve to shew under what circumstances venesection is allowable. The experience of this judicious practitioner leads him to concur with Messrs. Wilmer and Alanson in declaring, that blood-letting has generally failed to procure the return of a strangulated intestine, although he does not agree with them in their universal reprobation of its employment.

Having considered the circumstances which are common to hernia in general, Mr. Lawrence enters into the circumstances which distinguish the principal species: the *inguinal*, the *femoral*, the *umbilical*, and the *congenital*. He has prefixed such anatomical descriptions of the structure of the parts as is necessary for a complete comprehension of the nature of the disease, and which every surgeon ought to be perfect master of, who will not expose himself to the greatest embarrassments under the most arduous circumstances. In the anatomy of the parts connected with inguinal hernia, he acknowledges his obligations to the late splendid works of Camper and Mr. Cooper, whose delineations are more correct by far than any which previously existed. But he has been obliged to point out a material error of proportion committed both in the first and second plates of Mr. Cooper's

work. This must however be entirely ascribed to the draftsman, the plate being at variance with the description of the author. In the anatomy of femoral hernia, he has introduced some candid strictures on Mr. Hay's description contained in his valuable 'Practical Observations.' It is impossible for us to do any thing more than recommend this part of Mr. Lawrence's work to the most attentive and repeated perusal of the surgical student. We must say the same thing also with regard to the rules for the various operations necessary to the relief of this most hazardous and alarming malady. We can only observe in general that the reader will meet with every precaution which can be suggested by an enlightened prudence ; that the accidents, obstructions, and unexpected causes of embarrassment which occasionally occur, are perspicuously stated, and illustrated by examples, some of which have fallen under the author's own observation, and others are taken from the most esteemed writers on the subject, both British and foreign.

We think that Mr. Lawrence, in speaking of the medical treatment, would have done right to advise that, if necessary, regular medical aid should be resorted to. In subduing peritoneal inflammation, which may occur after the operation, he observes that 'the patient is often reduced so low by the means employed to subdue inflammation, that it is necessary to support him afterwards by nourishing diet, by wine and cordial medicines.' If so, we suspect that the methods used have been much more severe than necessary ; a mode of treatment which surgeons are very apt to indulge in at a dreadful expence of the vital powers. Moderate evacuations, with a strict attention to regimen, is infinitely preferable to more violent treatment.

The proper treatment of the omentum, when it forms the whole or part of the contents of a hernia, and perhaps has had its structure greatly altered by its unnatural situation, and the pressure and violence to which it has been subjected, is a point still unsettled among the best authorities. Mr. Lawrence seems on the whole to prefer the excision of the diseased portions, and tying up any bleeding vessels with small separate ligatures. He severely condemns a practice, not yet fallen into disuse, of including the whole protruded and altered portion in a ligature ; and confirms his opinion both by the authority of the most experienced professors, and by the examples of its injurious effects in the cases which fell under his own eye. We cannot say, however, that either of them carry complete conviction to our minds.

When it appears that a portion of the intestines is mortified, speculative men have proposed a variety of expedients to



remedy, as far as possible, the existing calamity. Some of these are hardly practicable, and others would probably be mischievous. We cannot then hesitate to concur with Mr. L. in his advice; which is simply to dilate the stricture, and to leave the subsequent progress of the case entirely to nature. If the patient be recoverable, the sloughs will cast off, the process of adhesion will retain the ends of the gut in a due state of opposition; the wound will often contract and entirely close, and the continuity of the alimentary canal will be perfectly re-established. This is one of the examples which completely expose the folly and impotence of officious interference with the restorative powers of the constitution.

Two methods of treating the umbilical hernia of infants have been followed at different periods; that by compression, which has prevailed almost entirely in modern practice; and that by ligature, which was the method practised by the ancients. The celebrated Dessault has revived the ancient method, and recommended it very warmly. Mr. Lawrence has given a very long extract from his *Œuvres Chirurgicales*, edited by Bichat, containing the mode of operating, and the reasons for preferring it to the tedious and uncertain method of compression. No one, we think, can read it without being forcibly impressed by his arguments; and, being inclined to ascribe the disuse into which this mode of treatment has fallen, to the timidity and mistaken tenderness of parents, who, to save their offspring a trifling present pain, expose them to the risk of future inconvenience and suffering during the remainder of their lives. As this work of Dessault's has not been translated, the English reader will feel indebted to Mr. Lawrence for this interesting extract.

The subject of *congenital* hernia has now been so long and so well understood as to furnish no opportunity for any new or particular observations. A peculiar species has however been discovered, in which the hernial sac with its contents are contained in the tunica vaginalis testis. It must be formed when the communication of the testis with the peritoneum is closed, but before the contraction has been continued from the abdominal ring downwards. Mr. Hay observed the first instance of this kind; and another has been related by Mr. Cooper.

The subject of hernia is perhaps the most interesting of any in surgery, as it requires of all others the greatest firmness and promptitude of decision. On the part of the surgeon the requisite qualifications for properly treating of it, are minute anatomical knowledge, and the power of conveying by language precise ideas and correct images. But words

alone are not sufficient to convey the necessary instruction. The student must not content himself with giving this work an indolent perusal, but he must diligently compare the descriptions with plates, with the parts in the dead subject, and the appearances in the living; and he must make himself as familiar with the precepts as the young scholar is expected to be with his grammar rules. Mr. Lawrence has done his part; he has united in this essay elegance of language, correctness of description, a discriminating judgment, and a fund of learning, which does equal honour to his talents and his industry.

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ART. VIII.—*Hints to the Public and the Legislature, on the Nature and Effect of Evangelical Preaching. By a Barrister. Part I. 8vo. Johnson. 3s. 6d. 1808.*

WE feel much obliged, and we think that the community at large will be much obliged to the author of this excellent pamphlet, for the clear and striking exposition which he has given of the effects of what is called *Evangelical Preaching*, on the habits and sentiments of those who have not wisdom enough to detect the fallacy, nor virtue to resist the lure. 'The Gospel,' says Dr. Hawker, who is one of the chiefs of this pious fraternity, 'is a covenant of grace and not of works, in which Jehovah intended to display the infinite greatness of his character in giving pardon, mercy, and peace, *without terms and without conditions*, on the part of the poor creature who becomes the object of it. SO THAT EVERY IDEA OF MORAL GOODNESS, AS A QUALIFICATION FOR OBTAINING IT, IS DONE AWAY.' (Hawker's Prop against all Despair, p. 15.) This '*grace of God*,' according to the declaration of the same preacher, '*overtops the tallest mountains of corruption*; and RISES HIGHER AND HIGHER IN PROPORTION AS THE MISERABLE OBJECTS OF SIN AND INIQUITY HAVE SUNK LOWER AND LOWER.' This must be comfortable doctrine indeed to those who frequent the haunts of debauchery and vice, and who from their youth up are trained to the commission of crimes! Another divine of the church of England, who belongs to the *evangelical fraternity*, tells his congregation and the public, that '*the justification of a sinner has no connection with his own personal obedience* either to the MORAL OR CEREMONIAL LAW: in the act of his own justification, his own performances are not taken into the account.' (Sermon by Rev. Ed. Cooper, rector of Hamstale Redware, Com. Stafford, p. 35) We think when our bishops suffer the minis

ters of the establishment to propagate such blasphemous misrepresentations of the gospel of Christ, and to disseminate doctrines of which the practical tendency is to encourage *every species of crime*, that they ought at least not to have exercised their vengeance on Mr. Stone for impugning a particular tenet in theology, *which has no connection with the practical duties of life*. Is it becoming the gravity of those who are placed at the head of a MORAL INSTITUTION, like the ecclesiastical establishment of this country, to suffer virtue to be undermined by the insidious arts of hypocritical religionists, and yet not to suffer error to be combated by the champions of truth?

The single qualification for final acceptance, according to Dr. Hawker, is 'to believe the gospel: for he that believeth shall be saved. Not one, or two, or ten thousand, but all. What, if they do such and such DUTIES? *Not a word of the kind*. What, if they perform such obligations? *Not a syllable like it*. It is an absolute promise of the Lord Jesus, founded in his own absolute power. Here are neither *ifs* nor *buts*; no *conditions* nor *terms*.' — 'You must despair,' says Mr. Burder in his Village Sermons, seventh edit. p. 25, 'of obtaining salvation by your works, your sorrow for sin, your future amendment; and THIS WILL MAKE THE GOSPEL WELCOME TO YOU.' — 'Think not,' says the same gentleman in another part of the same pernicious composition, 'think not *foolishly* first to mend yourselves, and then come to him;' meaning Christ; 'you will never be better till you do come:

'Come needy, come GUILTY, come loathsome and bare.

YOU CAN'T COME TOO FILTHY, COME JUST AS YOU ARE.'

'My dear children,' says the same Rev. Mr. Burder, 'why do you hope to go to Heaven? Is it because you are not as bad as others; because you say your prayers, and go to church or meeting? If so, you are proud; proud of your own *righteousness*, which the scripture calls *filthy rags*!'

In the pious system which these evangelical pastors teach, 'the *single* qualification expected, is to *believe the gospel*; as to practising its duties, that is wholly out of the question, for there are none to be practised. "NO CONDITIONS, NO TERMS. NO *IFS* AND *ANDS*," only BELIEVE, and the whole road to heaven is laid level before you. Never indeed was a system so well suited to the wants of all classes of sinners, whose names are to be found in the REGISTERS of the OLD BAILEY. It is good news, and they will no doubt search the Evangelical Gazettes again and again, to learn the "precious truth," that notwithstanding the thousands they have ruined by their infamous practices of fraud and depredation, they

have still as good a chance, and as sure a title to salvation as the best of men.

‘Each will triumphantly join chorus in the song placed for him by the Reverend Divine himself, (Dr. Hawker) at the end of his Instruction Book :

“There is a *fountain filled with blood,*  
*Drawn from Emmanuel’s veins,*  
 And *SINNERS plunged beneath that flood*  
 LOSE ALL THEIR GUILTY STAINS.  
 The dying Thief rejoiced to see  
 That fountain in his day,  
 And there have I as well as he,  
 WASHED ALL MY SINS AWAY.”

‘The Psalmist says of the wicked man “that he delighteth in blood,” he will therefore be readily enough persuaded to wash himself clean in the *element* of his corruption. His reason will not be shocked nor his faith staggered, to find this *element consecrated* to so extraordinary a purpose.

‘The community cannot but wish well to the progress of a system of instruction, which tends so greatly to the suppression of vice and the spread of morality !!! We cannot but be sanguine in our hopes of reformation, when the word of proclamation delivered weekly from the pulpits, and dispersed daily in cheap tracts to all classes of society, is—

‘To the SEDUCER—You have betrayed many that once were innocent, and have brought down many a father’s grey hairs with sorrow to the grave, but add one more victim, for *your life cannot be too impure*, and then—*take refuge in a Redeemer.*

‘To the ROBBER—You have corrupted many an honest mind by your example, and ruined many an honest man by your villainy ; but *YOUR CRIMES CANNOT BE TOO MANY OR TOO AGGRAVATED*, commit one more fraud on the public, and then—*lay hold on the cross.*

‘To the MURDERER—*YOUR SINS CANNOT BE TOO GREAT*,—dip your hands once more in the blood of your fellow creatures, and then—*WASH THEM WHITE IN THE BLOOD OF THE LAMB.*

‘Such is the plain, distinct, intelligible language of evangelical teaching—such are the principles propagated by means of the press, throughout the whole extent of the kingdom—such are the lessons which are taught to the profligate of every class, and sent into the world at a price that may bring the purchase within the reach of that description of persons to whose reception it is fitted.—Such is the new gospel faith, instilled into the ears of the ignorant in the numerous, and annually encreasing meeting-houses of its professors.—Such is the evangelical doctrine which is daily multiplying its converts and its congregations, while it thins every church of God in which the MORAL duties of man are inculcated, and in which the infinitely serious evils to the sinner and to society, which attend the breach of those duties, are faithfully and fully impressed.’

We feel a pleasure in bearing testimony to the truth and the force of the following observations :

‘ Not only do these anti-moral missionaries exert themselves at home, but every effort which the ardour of fanaticism and vanity can inspire, is employed to “evangelize the heathen,” as it is called; and not only are the more opulent of their deluded followers stripped, but even the poorest among them are plundered to support the expence of foreign missions, conducted in that spirit of ignorant and ill-directed enthusiasm, which the Scripture expressly reprobates as a “zeal without knowledge.” Missions teaching the mystic doctrines of Calvinism to savages that cannot count their fingers; and inculcating the mysteries of an abstruse creed, to poor wretches struggling with famine,—accustomed to follow the lead of their passions,—and whose minds are so dark, as with great difficulty to admit the plainest and most simple principles of common honesty.’

‘ These evangelical anti-moralists swarm in every town in the kingdom, and are daily multiplying their disciples in every hamlet and village throughout the country. And the entire devotion of the lower classes to these itinerant instructors, who train them to a systematic contempt of the moral law, and withdraw them from all dependence on the practice of their duty as men and as christians, is such as demands that at least the community should be put upon its guard, and that those to whom its welfare and prosperity are entrusted, should not sleep at their post.

‘ What is the object of all those laws which make up the system of Criminal Jurisprudence, but to punish offenders against the *moral law*? What are the laws of God or man made to prevent, but offences against *morality*? What are murder, theft, forgery, fraud, and the long train of crimes which are punished, according to their degree of enormity, with fine, imprisonment, transportation, and death—what are these, but so many violations of the *moral law* of the Gospel?—From what does sin and guilt of every kind arise, but from the neglect of it? —What is infidelity, intemperance, debauchery, gambling, and vice of every description, but so many breaches of *moral duty*?—What but a reformation of morals can save the nation from sinking under the weight of its private profligacy, and its public crimes?—Are not the multitude enough excited by the numerous temptations which assail them in this opulent and licentious metropolis to violate the laws of morality, but they must be taught from the pulpit to slight it? Must the press be made an engine, and by the priesthood too! to destroy that *moral law*, on which alone the foundations of the world can stand secure? Must the divine word be perverted to the purpose of weakening the efficacy of virtue?—Must the crusade against morality be carried on under banners stolen from the altar of God?—’

The extracts which we have made from this pamphlet



will prove that it is written with ability and eloquence, and the subject to which it relates is certainly one of no inconsiderable importance. For when the christian religion, which in its pure and unvitiated simplicity, furnishes the strongest antidote to vice and the most powerful corroborant of virtue, is converted by the envenomed sophistry of its teachers into a narcotic, which tends to still the trembling apprehensions of guilt and to encourage the presumption of sin, there is the most serious reason for general alarm.

Mr. Fellowes, in his *Religion without Cant*, and in his other publications, is among the few who have strenuously endeavoured to counteract the perilous mischief of this flagitious doctrine; but his honest labours never experienced an adequate encouragement; and no artifice was left untried by the fanatics to impede the circulation of his works. The bane of methodism which is spreading like a putrid sore over all classes of the people, has been dispersed by countless emissaries without, and by many even within, the church. It has become indeed a sort of epidemic malady, for which in its present acme of contagious influence, it is difficult to suggest a remedy. For an irrational distemper, we should hope that a rational cure might be proposed. But this methodistical superstition seems to bid defiance to every rational confutation. The evangelical missionary arrayed in the panoply of spiritual pride, and strong in the self-sufficiency of ignorance, is impenetrable to the force of argument. For it appears to be the nature of this monstrous evil to disorder not only the sensations but the conceptions of its votaries, and to render the head as dull as the heart is cold.

It must also be confessed (and the consideration gives us no small degree of pain) that the absurdities of Calvinism are apparently favoured by the *articles* of the established church; and hence some even of the more enlightened clergy, who feel it their duty to resist the machinations of these mischievous fanatics, are restrained from combating them with scriptural weapons, for fear of gainsaying some of the unscriptural articles. This imposes silence on many of the well-meaning but irresolute ministers of the church; and hence their adversaries, who are the adversaries of morality and truth, are often left without an opponent in the field. With the evangelical preachers, the Calvinistic articles, for such many of them may justly be called, are employed as a formidable engine of inquisitorial terror against the reason and the conscience of the anti-calvinist clergy. Before therefore

this *spurious christianity*, which passes at times under the name of Calvinism, and at others is designated by that of Methodism, which when inculcated by the priest, is emphatically termed *evangelical* or *gospel-preaching*. can be more effectually combated by the clergy, the liturgy and the articles must be sedulously revised, and no doctrines introduced which are not indisputably agreeable to the scriptures; and fitted to unite even the most jarring sects in the bonds of peace. Nothing but such a reformation in the national liturgy as the present bishops of London and Ely once endeavoured to procure, and, as we have been credibly informed, that archbishop Cornwallis once promised to introduce, can enable the clergy successfully to oppose the progress of methodism, or can produce that general amity and good will which are so much wanting in the church.

We cannot conclude this article without earnestly recommending this pamphlet, which is full of good sense, good religion, good morals and good writing, to the attention of the public.

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ART. IX.—*Essay on the Theory of Money and Exchange.*  
By Thomas Smith. 8vo. 6s. Cadell and Davis. 1807.

THE objects of the present Essay are the following:

‘First. To state what appears to be the ground-work, or true first principle, upon which the existence of “Money, or a Circulating Medium,” depends.

‘Second. To show the nature and properties of Coins, and their connection with the first principle.

‘Third. To show the nature and properties of Paper Money, and its connection with the first principle.’

‘Fourth. To shew the true theory of exchange, or connection with foreign countries, which is also founded on the first principle, and which will be illustrated, by an explanation of the real cause of the late high exchange with Ireland.’

In his remarks under the first head Mr. Smith tells us, ‘that previous writers upon money have not gone deep enough for a foundation whereon to rear their speculations.’ These writers had indeed penetrated as far as research could carry them into the mines of silver and of gold. In these precious metals they sought for the standards of value, but Mr. S. thinks that all their labour was to very little purpose; and he determines to go be-

yond them in this pursuit. He accordingly travels far from the beaten track of the shining ores till he gets into the regions of non-entity, where he appears to us to lose himself in a maze. But, in beating about in the thick and hazy air of turbid thought, he discovers at last what he calls a '*standard unit*,' an ideal something or nothing, with which, as with a potent spell, he proposes to work wonders in the theory of finance. And that this said '*standard unit*,' which is to act such a conspicuous part on the stock-exchange, may not appear without the due accompaniment of scientific honour, Mr. S. depicts it as '*something of the same nature with the letter placed for the unknown quantity in algebra*.'

This '*standard unit*,' gentle reader, is no other than the pound sterling of which our discreet and parsimonious grandfathers and grandmothers probably knew the nature and operations as well as Mr. S. though they had not the sagacity to foresee now much its sphere of agency might be enlarged and all its financial capacities improved by being baptized '*standard unit*,' instead of '*pound sterling*,' or '*sterling pound*.' When a writer in discussing any subject, which he does not fully comprehend, has the dexterity to substitute a new name for an old, or employs a term, which has the gloss of novelty, to express a truth which wears the rust of age, his fondness for the new-made vocable makes him regard it with that kind of admiring tenderness which a man feels for the first child that ever sprung out of his loins. He fondles and caresses the articulate bantling; he uses it lavishly, and every time in which he pronounces it with his lips, or writes it with his pen, his paternal vanity causes him to suppose that he is amplifying the stock of our ideas and throwing new splendors over wisdom's wide domain. As Mr. S. has discovered that money which is made of paper bears the same relation to his '*standard unit*,' as money which is wrought out of the solid mineral, he proceeds to communicate the additional piece of information, that, as a medium of exchange, paper money is infinitely preferable to coin; that consequently the stoppage of the Bank-payments in money was a most wise and salutary expedient; that the restriction is so good a thing that it ought never to be taken off; and that the Bank, instead of having issued too much paper, has erred only in not inundating the market with a greater abundance. On these points our opinion is diametrically opposite to that of Mr. Smith, as the reader may see in our review of Wheatley on Commerce; (See C. R. for September, 1807. p.17.) and in other parts of our journal. One of the charges which Mr. Smith prefers against money

made of the precious metals is, that it is of '*variable value*.' But is not the value of paper-money liable to similar variations? For in what does the value of money really consist, but in the quantity of labour which it will command, or of subsistence and produce which it will purchase? In this respect, paper-money is no more an '*invariable standard of value*,' than money made of silver or of gold. As far indeed as money made of paper or of gold is considered merely as a symbol or token of value, one may answer the same purpose as another as a medium of exchange; but when we come to compare their essential properties we find between them this essential difference. Money made of the precious metals is not only a token or representative of value, but it is at the same time formed of a material which no small portion of labour has been employed to obtain. Providence indeed appears wisely to have so sparingly distributed the precious metals in different parts of the earth, and to have rendered them so difficult of access without great previous toil, that they might serve as a standard of value in all parts of the world, and as nearly uniform as the mutable nature of human affairs will admit. But paper, though it is a symbol of value, has no value in itself, for a bank note, which passes for a thousand pounds, may be manufactured from a piece of rag which is not worth a farthing. A few penny-worths of labour may produce a bank note to any nominal amount: but gold and silver cannot be procured with the same facility; the labour which they cost to obtain is equal or nearly equal to the value at which they pass. Can the same equality be predicated of our paper coin? The ease with which paper may be counterfeited, is another objection to which it is liable in a greater degree than money made of the precious metals. A note for an hundred pounds may be as readily forged as a note for one: but a hundred guineas are not to be counterfeited without a hundred times more difficulty than one; and, when counterfeited, they cannot so readily be circulated without detection. Paper money may indeed, within certain reasonable restrictions, be employed with advantage to facilitate the commercial intercourse of mankind; but where it is issued in lavish abundance, as we have lately witnessed in this country, its only tendency is to raise to an unnatural excess the money price of every article, to reduce persons of limited incomes to distress, and to enable the idle to prey on the industrious. For though Mr. Smith may tell us, that the paper currency does not exceed the mercantile necessities of the country, yet daily experience proves that men may issue notes, and get them by stealth into circulation, which they have not only not gold or silver, but neither

lands nor goods to discharge. Is not this to increase the paper currency beyond the commercial necessities of the country?

Wherever either chartered companies, or solitary individuals, issue paper money for which they have no equivalent to give either in the precious metals, in land, or goods, all the paper which is so issued must be regarded as a fraudulent transaction. It is an imposition on the public credulity; and though Mr. Smith may talk of the relation between this paper-money and his '*standard unit*,' we can discover in it no other relation than that between a sharper and a dupe.

Mr. S. will tell us that the Bank do not issue notes without a substantial equivalent for every note which they issue. But however this may be, certain it is that *at present* they give no equivalent in return. If they issue a note for 100*l.* they offer neither gold nor silver, nor land nor merchandize, for it when it is taken back again: all the payment which they make is in other notes. They give one piece of paper for another. This is the glorious equivalent which they dispense; and while the confidence in the possible solvency of the Bank remains, no considerable inconvenience may be felt; but the moment this full-moon of public trust begins to wane, the most horrid forms of calamity and distraction will appear. Had the last administration not been so prematurely dismissed, this probable evil would have been no object of anxious dread; for Lord Grenville had formed a plan for making the Bank gradually resume its payments in specie. This hope however has vanished; and a thick gloom hardly pervious to a ray of hope is cast over the financial world.

Mr. S. will tell us what a great hardship it would be for the Bank to be obliged to resume its payments in silver and gold. But if the Bank have received a valuable consideration for every note which they have issued, the hardship seems to be greater on the public than on them. For if a substantial equivalent has been given for the notes of the Bank, the public, when they demand that equivalent, demand only their own. And what great injury is done to the Bank by requiring them to return with fidelity what they have received in trust? Whatever Mr. S. may say to the contrary, we maintain that the notes of the Bank always have been considered as the symbols or tokens, not of Mr. S.'s *standard unit*, which is a sort of physical non-entity, but of so many pieces of silver or of gold of a determinate weight or form. The English term '*pound*,' or '*pound sterling*,' is only another term for a certain quantity of silver to which the real pound of silver, which it formerly contained, has been suc-



cessively reduced. When the Bank first issued notes, no one would have received them in exchange for any commodity which he sold, or any debt which was due, unless he had been convinced that the Bank would, whenever he chose, give him an equivalent in the precious metals for the note which he possessed. For as the Bank do not give or pretend to give either land or merchandize, either corn, wine, or oil, &c. &c. for their notes, those notes can be regarded as valuable only as far as they are considered as pledges on the part of the Bank to repay them with silver or with gold. Without a confidence in the honesty of the Bank thus to redeem their notes, they can be regarded of no more value than the worth of the paper on which they are engraved. The precious metals always have had and always will have, from their relative scarcity and the great labour required to obtain them, an essential inherent value, which, besides their imperishable properties, renders them most proper as an *universal* medium of circulation; but paper has no value in itself, except as far as it is the representative of the precious metals. But Mr. S. thinks the general belief that Banks ought to be ready to give gold for their notes, '*a vulgar error*,' (see p. 68.) Mr. S. might almost with as much correctness have asserted, that honesty and truth are only vulgar errors, which it behoves us to explode, and which we must confess that the doctrine which he advances, would, if it were followed, soon turn out of doors. For we maintain, against the authority of Mr. S. and even of the noble lord to whom he has dedicated his book, that when the Bank of England issues notes, it pledges itself at the same time to repay them, not in another piece of paper, but to their full amount in gold. And the *restriction* which Mr. Pitt, in a moment of sudden panic rather than of wise reflection, imposed on the monied payments of the Bank, was certainly designed only as a *temporary expedient*; and we will venture to say that if government were, at this moment, to sanction the fraudulent hypothesis of Mr. S. that the Bank ought not to pay the amount of their notes in the precious metals, not a day would elapse before the notes of the Bank, like the assignats of the French, and the paper dollars of the Americans, would be rapidly depreciated, till all commercial confidence would be at an end, and the nation had the sober sense to revert to the good old circulating medium of silver and of gold. But Mr. S. gives us this valuable piece of information, that the Banks, instead of promising to return an equivalent in cash for the notes which they issue, '*expressly say, that they will pay one pound, one pound one shilling, five pounds*

five shillings, twenty pounds, one hundred pounds, &c. by which is merely to be understood that they engage to account for that proportion of the standard unit of the country.' If the reader understand this, we confess that we have not so much sagacity. For if the banks, when they promise to pay one pound one shilling, or five pounds five shillings, &c. for the notes which they issue, do not mean to return gold or silver to that amount, what is it that they mean? If Mr. S.'s *standard unit of the country*, in which he professes the banks promise to pay their notes, have no relation to gold or silver, to land or merchandize, but resembles the letter which stands for the unknown quantity in algebra, which may stand for any thing or every thing, but which is to produce nothing to the holder, Mr. S. might as well at once have represented it as an airy delusion, a magic spell, designed to cheat the good people of England out of their five senses, and to make them believe that a bank note for one hundred pounds, instead of being a guarantee for so much gold or silver, is only a pledge to pay something which this author calls a *standard unit*, but which, according to his mode of explaining the matter, has as little reality as the man in the moon.

ART. X.—*Emancipation in Disguise; or, the true Crisis of the Colonies. To which are added, Considerations upon Measures proposed for their temporary Relief; and Observations upon Colonial Monopoly, shewing the different Effects of its Enforcement and Relaxation; exposing the Advantages derived by America from Louisiana; and lastly, Suggestions for a permanent Plan to supply our Colonies with Provisions, and our Navy with certain Naval Stores, independent of foreign Supplies.* 8vo. 5s. Ridgway. 1807.

WE have seldom perused any pamphlet which evinces more good sense and moderation than the present. The author of '*War in Disguise*,' of which this pamphlet will furnish a very satisfactory refutation, ascribes the present distress of our West India planters to the monopoly of the French colonial carrying trade by American neutrals, and he considers the American carrying trade as a *war in disguise*, carried on by the intrigues of the French government to serve as a shelter for its commerce, and as a nursery for its navy. But the author answers this mode of reasoning with a cogeny which it will be difficult for his adversaries to repel.

“ It is evident that the present state of the British West-Indies depends on other causes than the continuance of the American carrying-trade, and it is taking a very forced view of this trade, to consider it as the effect of any *artifice* of France, or designed encroachment of America :—would not the French government prohibit the American carrying-trade to-morrow, could they protect the fleets of their own merchantmen, or were a peace to take place?—Would she allow neutrals to carry for her, in time of peace, when she can carry cheaper for herself?—Would France have ever allowed the Americans to be the carriers at all if she could have prevented it?—If she had a navy, would not the prohibition be her first and best policy in order to raise seamen for that navy?—Is not then the neutral carrying-trade, in a great measure, the natural consequence of our glorious victories over the French navy? Have we not destroyed their means of protecting commercial fleets? Ought we, then, to be astonished, or to consider it as an artifice, that they will not trust their merchantmen on the ocean unprotected, when their men of war cannot protect themselves? The neutral carrying-trade is the natural effect of a cause so glorious to ourselves, that there will be less danger in reconciling ourselves to its temporary continuance, than in forcing our enemy to attempt the recovery of that state of commercial greatness and naval power from which he was reduced at the incalculable loss of that immortal hero, whom we can no longer call to the performance of those feats of war, unparalleled in the naval history of the world; and than which nothing less could have averted the ruin of our empire.”

- If the French had a powerful navy it is certain that they would not employ American carriers. Our naval superiority has obliged them to resort to this expedient; and it ought therefore to be to us a cause rather of exultation than complaint. For instead of favouring the growth of a French navy, it must, while it lasts, have the contrary effect. It is commerce which nurtures seamen; and as long as the commerce of France is conducted not by Frenchmen but by foreigners, she is not very soon likely to have a formidable navy. It seems therefore to be highly politic in us to suffer neutrals to engross the whole trade between France and her colonies without throwing any impediments in the way. For though by putting a stop to the trade of neutrals with the French ports, we may, in a great degree, prevent the introduction of colonial produce into France, yet the same measure would encourage the French marine, which it is our interest to repress. The author well remarks, that in peace France can have no navy without commerce, and in war no commerce without a navy. The trade, which France at present carries on by means of neutrals, is a sort of *round-about* commerce, which, if it supply her with certain articles of luxury, tends to prevent the restoration of her marine.

‘Motives of justice, (says the author) as well as policy, forbid our interference with such a trade. Justice forbids that the colonial cultivators should be designedly made to suffer by a warfare that ought to be rather directed against the *present* government of France, which neither the royalists nor republicans of Martinique nor Guadaloupe established nor upheld; and whose measures or modes of warfare would not be altered in one jot even by the total ruin of these colonies. Our policy, too, forbids that we should quarrel with the Americans for feeding the peaceable planters of these islands, inasmuch as it would also endanger the safety of our own.’

‘Because we are involved in the disasters of war, ought we to desire that our American allies, whose geographical situation and political disposition render them more than ordinarily susceptible of the advantages of peace, should not profit by their peaceful state? It always has been, and always will be, the consequence of war, that those who can preserve themselves in a state of peace will profit by the disasters of their neighbours. We ought not to blame them for avoiding the calamities of warfare: and it is a miserable selfishness to grudge them those accidental advantages which we cannot ourselves enjoy. They do not contrive the state of distress by which they profit, nor do they profit by the disasters of war, because the disasters are *ours*.—They profit as much by the disasters of our enemy. And if, during the miseries of war, our enemy benefits, in some measure, by the peaceful state of neutral powers, while we obstinately refuse the same assistance, which they would as readily give to us, we ought not to lay the blame upon the neutral, because we “are labouring under great and increasing burthens” in our Colonies, while “those of the enemy, comparatively, are thriving.”

Most of our present statesmen appear to be governed by temporary and fugitive considerations of policy rather than by those great and broad principles of action, which, under the direction of wisdom and of goodness, accommodate themselves to all circumstances and all times. A pitiful, deluded, and short-sighted selfishness, is the ruling policy of the day. Thus, instead of any great measures, adapted to the circumstances and accommodated to the spirit of the times, we have nothing but a succession of expedients which are continually varying with the fluctuations of passion and caprice. A mercenary spirit seems to predominate in all our transactions. We calculate the momentary loss or gain of measures more than the justice or injustice, and consequently more than the real and permanent benefit or inconvenience. We see the neutral trade making some little addition to the enjoyment of our enemies; and, therefore, in order to prevent it, we distress the commerce of our friends. In this

respect America and other neutrals have good reason to complain of our violence and oppression. But the short-sighted selfishness of our politicians is particularly visible in this—that the measures, which they have taken to crush their foes will prove ruinous only to their friends, while they will essentially advance the interest of their enemies. Our ministers wage war without a spark of magnanimity, as if they were warring only against the property of peaceful merchants and defenceless individuals. By the prohibitions which we have laid on the commerce of neutrals, we rather attack the merchant than the state. But the spirit of generous warfare will respect the interest and property of individuals, and reserve itself only for the combat of warriors in arms. It is the spirit of mercenary warfare, such as even Jew brokers would hardly wage, which so exasperated the inhabitants of South America, and which caused us to lose the footing which we had obtained in that continent. At Copenhagen, which was also attacked under the auspices of Sir Home Popham, whose buccaneering exactions are said to have occasioned the implacable enmity of Buenos Ayres, we directed our hostilities against the churches, hospitals, and alms-houses, against the warehouses of the merchants, and the private dwellings of the peaceful citizen, in order to precipitate the surrender of the place, which we ought rather not to have taken at all than to have captured by such cruel and dishonourable means. ‘Is it not,’ says the author, ‘a narrow, paltry, ignoble, and unfeeling principle of war, to fight the battles of nations by distressing the peaceable cultivator and the merchant, instead of attacking the warriors of our enemy?’

The clamours which have lately been raised by our sordid, purblind, penny-wise and pound-foolish politicians, against the neutral carrying trade, evince as much inhumanity as folly. For the effect will ultimately be to force the

‘enemy to employ his own ships and men? and having no navy to protect his fleets, every merchantman would be obliged to be fully manned and armed, in order to make running voyages, in the course of which, they would be often obliged to fight singly; and thus we should teach them, from necessity, to navigate and to fight, and force them to lay the foundation of a future navy. They would thus acquire the *means*, at the same time that they would incur the *necessity*, of a navy.

‘But the author of “War in Disguise” exults in the *necessity* which enforcing the colonial monopoly would produce, on the part of France, to build ships, raise men, equip fleets, &c. in order to protect the commerce into which she would then be forced. Let us



not forget, that our own naval greatness owes its origin to this very sort of necessity. Oliver Cromwell, during the commonwealth, out of resentment to the colonists, prohibited neutrals from carrying their produce. Our jealousy of the Americans who carry the crops of the French colonies, if we act upon it as we are advised, will produce the same effect on the marine of France. The extraordinary exertions of our enemy have produced wonders, at his command, on shore ; and such a necessity may induce him to make gigantic efforts to effect a more rapid re-establishment of an armament at sea than we may be willing to believe possible. At any rate, to enforce those laws to the advancement of the navy of our enemy, which have been so effectually enforced to the advancement of our own, can never terminate in our advantage.

‘It is also said, that, “looking forward to a long protracted war, we must, before the close of it, lose our naval superiority, if the enemy be allowed to retain, and still continue to improve, his present oppressive advantages.” I ask, how can France, by the carrying-trade of America, cause the loss of our naval superiority ? France must have seamen to have a navy ; but the neutral trade will not give her seamen ; on the contrary, it prevents her from raising them, and thereby confirms the inferiority of the French navy, and preserves, instead of endangering, the superiority of our own. But, admitting the fact, that the commerce of our enemy is carried on by the neutrals ; “while, in the mean time, he is preparing the means of active maritime enterprises ;” it will avail him but little, to build ships of the line, while he has no fleets of merchantmen from which he can man them. Nor can I conceive any thing more enfeebling to our enemy’s naval power, or more invigorating to our own, than the very state in which our author seems to lament that both are placed ; for, though in the mean time, the number of hostile ships “may be augmented ;” yet, while they are obliged to be, as our author describes them, “nursed and reserved for a day of trial,” we shall have but little to dread from their raw fresh-water crews, on their suddenly emerging from their nursery, unpractised in maritime manœuvres, and unseasoned in sea fights ; when opposed to our gallant tars, who have become invincible from the very cause that our author considers a hardship, viz. because they are constantly “sustaining all the most laborious duties of war.” The conclusions drawn to our disadvantage, by this author, must be exactly reversed ; for, nothing can more promote our present naval superiority, than the very circumstances of which he complains.’

These remarks are very pertinent and convincing, and cannot be too widely disseminated.

Much has been said respecting the desertion of British sailors from our ships of war into the service of the Americans. This at first view seems a serious evil, but as the rights of nations are reciprocal, we do not think that Britain has even in this respect *more* ground for complaint than the very country whose conduct she condemns.

'While, says the author, we cry out against our seamen being employed in foreign service, which certainly is an evil at any time, but of most magnitude in time of war; we ought not to forget, that, in time of war also, we are giving great encouragement to the sailors of neutral powers. Let it be asked which is the greatest crime, *that neutrals should employ, in peaceful trade, the subjects of powers at war; or that we should entice, by high wages, the subjects of nations at peace, to enter into our service while at war?*

'I do not mean to say, that both are not evils in certain relations; and that as much as we can do, with justice, we ought to do, to remedy the evil which is suffered on our part; but, it is not candid to say, that we have the only right to complain of the evil. For each Englishman that is in the American service, there are, in time of war, at least fifty neutrals in the service of Great Britain.

'It would, then, be wiser to try to remedy the evil, by humane treatment and more liberal pay: for, while the high wages of our merchant-service entice foreigners into our trading ships, the inferior pay of our navy induces the *malcontents* to prefer the freedom of neutral employment.

'When I speak of humane treatment, I should be sorry to be understood as intending, even in the least degree, the relaxation of that discipline on which our naval superiority, especially in battle, so materially depends; nor would I be understood to impeach the general conduct of our naval commanders. On the contrary, there are many vessels that scarcely ever lose a man by desertion; and whose crews are so rivetted in their affections to their commanders, by their generous, humane, and yet manly treatment of the seamen, that they would make great sacrifices rather than be obliged to leave their ships; and to be turned over the side of such a ship would be considered as an indelible blot in the character of a British sailor.

'But there are, also, other ships, and I wish the number of them were small, from which the desertions, that are continually taking place, can only be accounted for by the exercise of an unfeeling severity, and indiscriminate despotism. And, when such treatment is added to small pay, and a continual absence from family and friends, who can wonder at desertions, or that the discontented seamen should seek refuge in the asylum of neutral trade? There is, therefore, no necessity to attribute their desertions to any attempts on the part of the Americans to debauch our British sailors. It is evident enough, that there is no need to decoy them into the only ships on the ocean in which they can be associated with men of the same origin, the same manners, the same language and religion.'

The temperate and virtuous author of this pamphlet is not one of those who defend the late violent outrages on the commerce of neutrals, as well as the attack upon Copenhagen,  
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by the assertion that the rules of morals are not to be observed in our contest with a man who sets all moral obligations at defiance; that because he is a robber and a cut-throat, we must be the same; and that we must fight him with his own weapons; that is with TREACHERY, CRUELTY, and INJUSTICE. What is this but to confess that virtue is weak and that vice is strong? and that the moral government of the Deity which we, in our old-fashioned education were always taught to consider as most especially favouring the laws of truth, justice, and humanity, is a chimerical illusion? It was left to the advisers of the attack on Copenhagen to teach us, that the observers of right are in a more dangerous situation than the perpetrators of wrong; and that in order to prevent the possibility of a friendly state being converted into a hostile, it is the wisest policy to set fire to its capital, to capture its fleet, to ravage its dockyards and arsenals, and by blending injury with insult, to outrage the national honour of Denmark in a manner of which it will require the lapse of ages to efface the hostile impression which it has left behind. We take great honour to ourselves in having been among the first who reprobated in the most unreserved terms this atrocious attack on the independence of a neutral state at a time when numbers, who judge more by events than principles, were loud in its praise; and when hardly any seemed to have the courage to speak of it as it deserved. But we are happy in having found the sentiments which we delivered on this occasion, in such complete unison with those of the most enlightened and upright members of both houses of parliament. OUR POLITICS REST ON THE ADAMANTINE BASE OF MORALS; and if they be opposite to those of the ruling faction, it is not because we harbour any personal animosity towards any individual of any party, but because the measures of the individuals whom we oppose are adverse to justice and humanity. We are convinced from a large and attentive survey of human affairs that *justice and policy are never at variance*; and we heartily concur with the present writer in reprobating the mischievous sophistry of those persons who attempt to

‘Reconcile the expediency of repelling wickedness by wickedness, under the plausible pretext that “the ravages of this cruel spoiler are only to be resisted by the weapons which he himself employs:” and, that “what in him is the basest and most wanton depravity, is reduced in us to nothing more than justifiable retaliation.’

‘ Merciful God ! forgive the man, and correct his heart, who can wish to involve our country in the imitation of those crimes which have already been made the scourge of our guilt ! May we be deaf to those devilish delusions, which will only plunge us deeper and deeper by such vain attempts to extricate ourselves !’

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ART. XI.—*The Edinburgh Medical and Physical Dictionary, containing an explanation of the Terms of Art in, Anatomy, Physiology, Pathology, Therapeutics, Surgery, Midwifery, Pharmacy, Materia Medica, Botany, Chemistry, Natural History, &c. &c. as employed in the present improved State of Medical Science ; and also, a copious Account of Diseases and their Treatment, according to the Doctrines of Cullen, Monro, Hunter, Fordyce, Gregory, Denham, Saunders, Home, and other modern Teachers in Edinburgh and London. To which is added, a copious Glossary of obsolete Terms, calculated to assist those who have occasion to refer to the Writings of the Ancients. In two Volumes, with many Plates. By Robert Morris, M.D. James Kendrick, Surgeon, F. L. S. and Others. 4to. Edinburgh, Bell and Bradfute. London, Ostell. 1807.*

WE cannot speak in terms of commendation of this publication. It is needless for us to say any thing concerning the utility of this species of compilation. The constant demand for dictionaries of the arts and sciences is a sufficient proof that there is a large portion of the community, to which the form of a dictionary is most convenient for conveying information. To medical practitioners living in situations remote from the capital, and whose time is so much occupied with the daily labours of their profession that they have little leisure to devote to books of any kind, and still less opportunity of becoming acquainted with the changes in opinions, theory and practice, which occupy the minds of men in the centre of knowledge and business, a good dictionary is of itself a sort of library : and indeed if it included a fair survey of the state of medical science, omitting what is useless, obsolete and frivolous, and confining itself to what is sound, scientific and useful, it might answer the purpose of conveying solid instruction better than the loads of learned lumber which form the principal part of most libraries and which serve little other purpose than ostentation and empty parade.

We do not expect from the makers of dictionaries any great depth of erudition, the decision of subtle questions,

of specimens of original research. But we may be allowed to expect, that at this time a-day, the columns of a dictionary should not be stuffed with the rubbish of Quincy and his immediate successors; and that when the sources of information are so ample and so much within the reach of ordinary industry, every thing should be found which is of such a nature that it is more a species of disgrace to be ignorant of it than a credit to know it.

To enable our readers therefore to judge of the execution of this work, we think we cannot do better than present them with a list of some of the articles, which we deem perfectly frivolous and useless, taken in their order, beginning at any point where we may chance to open the volume. Let it be the letter P, and we will go regularly through the two first vowels. We find then, under Pa, and Pe, the following list:

Pabulum, padus, pœonia, paiganica, paigil, palimpisse, palindrornia, palliation, palma, palmoil, palmata, panada, panaris, panex, pandemic, panicum italicum, panicum miliaceum, panopholia, pansies, panterba, pantophobia, papaw, papillaris herba, papyrus, para, paracynanche, parallelopedia, paralysis herba, pareloneum, parget, parietaria, parietaria officinalis, paris, paris quadrifolia, parmesan, parsley, black mountain, parsley-macedonian, parsnep, parthenitum, parthenium mas, passiflora laurifolia, passiflora maliformis, patientia, patience-garden. paul's betony, pavanæ lignum, peagle, pearl, pellitory-bastard, pellitory of Spain, pellitory-wall, penæa mucronata, penguin, pennyroyal-harts, pentædrostyla, pentagonotheca, peony-common, pepo, pepper-wall, pepper-poor-man's, perfoliata, perforation, peristerum, perla, persicaria, personata, pes alexandrinus, pes cati, pes columbinus, pes leonis, pestilent wort, petasites, petrapium, petrification, petroselinum macedonicum, petrosilex, petunse, peucedanum, peucedanum officinale, peucedanum silans, peziza auricula.

The reader cannot but admire the ingenious industry with which these compilers have contrived to make two, three or more articles, out of one. Thus in the list before us we have parietaria and parietaria officinalis in immediate succession to denote the very same plant. In like manner we have paris, and paris quadrifolia. 'It is the paris quadrifolia of Linnæus,' says the first article: 'paris quadrifolia; the systematic name of the herb paris, see Paris,' gravely repeats the second. Besides this happy device, the English and the Latin names give another opportunity of swelling the pages without increasing the matter. Thus we have



Parsley, common, petroselinum and petroselinum vulgare, pellitory, wall parietaria, and parietaria officinalis. The same skill has been shown in the arrangement of the anatomy. If a muscle has happened to receive different names from different authors, instead of noticing the circumstances (if needful) under the most approved name, each synonym very solemnly assumes its place in its alphabetical order. Take as an illustration the five following successive articles: 'Pectinalis (so named from its arising from the *pecten* or pubis) the pectinæus of Albinus; &c. Pectinati musculi; Patinæus; see Paetinalis. Pectoralis, see Pectoralis major. Pectoralis major; (*pectoralis*; from *pectus*, the breast), the pectoralis of Albinus; &c.' Even different modes of spelling have been made to contribute to the same goodly purpose of increasing the bulk of the volume. Thus we see Calix, and Calyx, in two articles. Cambogia Gutta, Gambogea, and Gambogia, furnish three.

These little book-making artifices, paltry as they are, might however be overlooked as one of the regular tricks of the trade, if they were counterbalanced by the value of the more important and essential materials; as in marketing, the good housewife is contented if she can purchase what she wishes of prime meat, to take a quantity of *logger* into the bargain. But we cannot really make this allowance; for the prime pieces are so few, and the *logger* so large, that we are forced to go to market elsewhere. In truth, many of the most important articles are made of materials nearly obsolete; the best authorities are often entirely overlooked; and those who wish to be instructed in the modes of treatment most approved in modern practice, will be completely disappointed.

We would not have hazarded this assertion, if we had not examined several articles with considerable attention. Having made it, it is incumbent on us to corroborate it by an example or two.

*Colica Pictonum.*—After a description, to which we have no objection, and a few remarks on the effects of common remedies, we are gravely told that 'the balsam of Peru as prescribed by Sydenham, has, with gentle purgatives, opiates, and some drops of the hotter essential oils, continued to be the medicines commonly employed in this disease, till a specific was published by Dr. Lionel Chambers, of South Carolina.' This *specific* 'is prepared in the following way;

℞ Cupri vitriolati.—ar. viij.  
Aquæ distillatæ—℥ viij.  
Misce, fiat solutio.

'The dose is a wine-glassful, given fasting, for nine successive mornings.' Would not the poor country practitioner, called to the assistance of a neighbouring plumber, think himself happy in the discovery of this *specific*; and in administering it, on the authority of his Edinburgh Medical Dictionary, conceive that he was treating his patient, agreeably to the doctrines of Cullen, Monro, Hunter, Fordyce, and other modern teachers in London and Edinburgh? how could he suspect that he was using a remedy, which has never gained any credit among British practitioners, and neglecting a well-known and approved mode of treatment, which is as successful as can be hoped for in a disease so contagious, but of which he will not receive the most distant glimmering from the work before us?

*Scarlatina.* This is a disease which would receive from writers zealous to instruct their readers and to serve the public, a strict and critical attention. But the article on the subject bears every internal mark of having been written at least five and twenty years ago. The tract of Dr. Withering is the latest which is noticed. The practice of the cold affusion, which was first tried by Dr. Currie in this fever, the use of purgatives as prescribed by Dr. Hamilton, the use of the acids in suppressing the contagion, the other proposals which have been made for the same important purpose, are all passed over in profound silence.

'Cancer. When a malignant schirrus or warty excrescence has proceeded to a period of ulceration, attended with a constant sense of ardent pain, is irregular in its figure and presents an unequal surface; if it discharge sordid, sanious, or fetid matter; the edges of the sore being thick, indurated, and often exquisitely painful, sometimes inverted, at other times retorted; and should the ulcer in its progress be frequently attended with hæmorrhages, in consequence of ærosion of blood-vessels, there will be little hazard of a mistake in calling it a cancer or cancerous ulcer.'

Doubtless this, except in rare cases, is sufficiently correct, but it is of little or no use, since when the disease has proceeded so far, there can be no difficulty in distinguishing it; and unfortunately, very little utility likewise, since it is quite past the power of surgery. The point of true importance is to distinguish it in its incipient stages; and on this, neither in this article, nor in that of schirrus, do we meet with any satisfaction. We are soon after informed that the hard chords, which are found to extend themselves in different directions from the principal tumour, and from which the name of cancer is derived, are nothing more than in-

flamed and hardened absorbent vessels. This is a gross error, and the more inexcusable as Dr. Baillie's accurate dissections of the cancerous induration have been so many years before the public. But they are complete nonentities to our *well-informed* and *scientific* editors. In like manner the researches of Mr. Home, and the accurate anatomical arrangement of Mr. Abernethy, are wholly passed over *sub silentio*.

In the chemical department we meet with the same marks of ignorance, or to speak, we believe, more correctly, the articles have been almost entirely copied from an older work, without the slightest attempt to correct errors, or introduce recent discoveries. One of the first of the chemical articles abundantly proves this. Alum is the one we allude to. It has been proved (we believe ten years ago at least) by Vauquelin and Chaptal, that alkaline matter (either potash or ammonia) is essential to the composition of alum. The common alum of commerce is usually, strictly speaking, a super-sulphate of argil (or alumine) and potash. So far indeed our editors are not wholly in the dark, having found the name *sulphas aluminæ acidulus cum potassâ*, in the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia. But here their learning ends. The method proposed by Bergman, and an old one by Chaptal, are the only processes they are acquainted with for preparing this salt; processes which it is well known are essentially defective. In another article under the same letter A, we meet with a gross blunder :

‘The arsenical acid saturated with ammonia, and duly evaporated, forms a salt crystallized in rhomboides; which when urged by heat, loses first its water of crystallization, then its alkali, and is resolved into a vitrious mass.’

The truth is that in this experiment white arsenic sublimes copiously, the ammonia being decomposed, and effecting a partial reduction of the arsenic acid.

The pharmaceutical part is such as can be obtained from any dispensatory.

Had our strictures on this compilation been in proportion to the value we set upon it, we should have dismissed it in three lines. But we have thought it a piece of justice to the public, that those who are willing to put themselves to the expence of purchasing two thick quarto volumes, should not be wholly in the dark as to the intrinsic worth of the heavy load of pages with which they are proposing to encumber their shelves. We are far from saying that this Dictionary is without valuable matter. But we do not know that the editors of these volumes have contributed a single line to any that may be justly so denominated.

ART. XII.—*A Supplement to the 'Practical Seamanship,' with an Appendix, by Richard Hall Gower, Author of the Practical Seamanship, and formerly in the Service of the East India Company. Mawman. 1807.*

IN a country whose prosperity and even safety depend on her maritime superiority, any work which tends to improve our naval architecture, and to communicate to our ships qualities in which they are at present deficient, to render the construction less expensive, and to augment both their velocity and strength, must be regarded as a work of great interest and importance. We know the prejudices which there are in favour of the old modes of naval mechanism, and how much they are strengthened in this country by the recollection of the glorious results with which that mode has been so abundantly associated. But we cannot suppose that ship-building has yet reached its highest point of perfection; and we think that the ingenious and reflecting author of the present performance has proved by incontestable arguments that it is susceptible of farther improvements. Mr. Gower is not a visionary theorist in naval architecture, for he has formed no theory which he has not put to the test of experiment; and he has constructed a vessel called the *Transit*, on the principles which he recommends. This vessel fully answered the most sanguine expectations of the contriver; for it was never surpassed in celerity of motion, nor in facility of management. The volume which Mr. Gower has here presented to the public, contains so much useful matter, that we shall make no apology for presenting the reader with a brief analysis of the contents.

The first tract relates to the construction of ships, and shows the incompetency of vessels to perform the task which seamen would willingly impose upon them. This is proved to arise from the perplexed and gigantic structure of the masts and rigging; the immense and complicated mass of which destroys the fabric of the hull, produces innumerable misfortunes, prevents that *simplicity* of which seamanship is susceptible, and impedes the velocity of the vessel. This, as he proves very satisfactorily by means of a diagram, may, with a beaming wind, exceed the velocity of the wind; and he then emphatically observes,

‘How imperfect must the present European art of sailing appear, when it can in truth be asserted, that the finest sailing frigate will scarcely exceed one fourth the velocity of the wind! Indeed, when

we view the complication of the machinery of a ship, it is natural to exclaim, "how is it possible for so heavy and perplexing a contrivance to be moved and manœuvred with ease and expedition!" with the wind on, and before the beam, each rope, mast, yard, and boom, each foot of overlapping canvass, is a drawback to its speed; and yet, of these there are abundance, so heaped together, that the machinery of a ship may be considered as the medly-composition of many minds, without regard to system.'

He next notices the improper shape of vessels for naval purposes; and shews the weakness of their formation, notwithstanding the apparent strength from the immensity of timber employed in composing their hulls. From the foregoing arguments he draws this general conclusion respecting the sailing of vessels:

'Taking a comparative view of the sailing of vessels, this general conclusion may be drawn: that however badly they may sail, yet all will make their passage, if you give them time, and the wind continue fair; but if the wind become foul, and blow so strong as to bring the swift and slow equally under low canvas, the proud and lofty frigate has no better chance of a quick passage than the dullest sailing merchantman; because, under these circumstances, all must inevitably go to leeward.

'Since, then, it appears that all vessels are certain of making a passage, if the wind continue fair, but that none can perform it if the wind blow strong in a foul direction, surely, to construct such a vessel as will make its passage with contrary winds, is a fit subject of inquiry for the philosophic mind, and worthy the patronage of a great maritime nation!'

The author then gives the leading features of his new-invented four-masted vessel, the *Transit*, with reasons for her peculiar construction in hull and rigging; and, in a prospectus of her qualities, he exhibits such as must render sailing, simple, safe, and expeditious, without being subject to the various delays and accidents which arise from the complex machinery of a common ship.

We have next a brief history of the *Transit*, from her launch, which we have perused with interest, and which we particularly recommend to the perusal of those who entertain any doubts respecting the practicability of Mr. Gower's improved scheme of naval architecture. In this part of the work the author details a trial of velocity which took place between the *Transit* and the *Osprey* sloop of war; the *Transit* outsailed her adversary in every direction, with every degree of wind, in calm and in boisterous weather, so that the Captain of the *Osprey* was almost led to think that he had to contend with



a *devil* under sail. This trial was instituted by the express desire of the author's old masters (the East India Company) with a view to serve him by the purchase of the *Transit*, as an East India packet, provided her celerity surpassed that of her competitor. On his return from this triumphant cruise, we are sorry to find that the Directors of the Company, who were probably deceived by the misrepresentations of certain persons who were interested in the old '*mumpsimus*' of ship-building, took hardly any further notice of the author. This circumstance he thus jocosely relates :

'Not hearing from the East India Company, after patiently waiting, he, by the advice of his friends, on the 30th of July, attended at the East-India House. There he spent the day in walking in the passage, and making ineffectual efforts to gain the notice and an audience of the Chairman.

'In the evening, whilst relating the history of the cruise with the *Osprey*, and remarking on this seeming neglect of the Chairman, to a jocose optician, then living near the India-house,—but now no more:—the optician begged leave to observe, "that the image which had been seen of a patron in the person of the Chairman, might prove no other than an optical illusion, and suggested the propriety of my returning to the *Transit*, instead of risking the loss of convoy, and of getting into trouble by dancing attendance on fanciful images at the India-house."—It should seem, that the optician was a prophet, for the inventor never set eyes on the Chairman afterwards !'

After proving the *Transit* highly qualified for dispatch, for trade, and warfare, the tract concludes with a body of independent evidence, which proves beyond possibility of refutation that the vessel does possess all the nautical advantages which are enumerated in the prospectus.

The second tract relates to several instruments or logs of the author's invention, the better to effect the just admeasurement of a ship's way through the water. In the introductory pages the author shews the imperfection of the common log, yet proves the value of the instrument, on approaching the land, in gloomy weather. The just confidence of navigators in nautical astronomy, will not cause them to throw the log aside as useless. Mr. Gower describes to us the general dearth of nautical skill among seamen, arising partly from the want of education, and partly from the ship-owners, whose sordid parsimony prevents them from supplying their ships with charts and good instruments for the navigation of their vessels. On this head he says,

'To cure this pernicious oversight, so disastrous to the lives of seamen, and injurious to the insurer,—it would be policy in the underwriters, to decline all risk on such vessels as were not liberally found in charts and instruments of navigation.'

He then relates the following anecdote to prove the little attention that is paid to navigation :

'In the year 1780, he sailed out to the East-Indies, with a large convoy, commanded by Commodore Johnson.—In the fleet were several transports and victuallers, who, unacquainted with navigation and the nature of so distant a voyage, were poorly provided with charts and instruments. So much was this the case, that one of them, well known to our second officer, was actually possessed only of an *unadjusted quadrant*, and a *Moor's Navigation* ; without a single chart, save the little map contained in that work, comprehending the coast between England and Madeira.

'For an instant, let us imagine the state of a vessel so circumstanced, and alone—adrift in the pathless ocean—the centre of an extended circle—without a guide to direct it, or a real object to pursue !—Hope views the wished-for land in some false-resembling cloud,—the ship bears-up, with rapid course, to join the welcome shore :—but, alas ! she follows it in vain ; for soon the gladdening view, losing itself upon the sight, is all dispersed in air, leaving the vessel to every appearance where she was,—yet still within the centre of a fleeting circle, whose boundary can never be approached !

'The state of this unguided vessel, in the year 1780, was surely *inferior* to the one commanded by the reflecting mind of Christopher Columbus, as far back as the *fourteenth century* !'

The remainder of this introduction relates to the state of navigation in the royal navy, for the improvement of which the author throws out some useful hints.

The first log which is mentioned in this tract, is termed a water log, by which the distance sailed may be ascertained by the running out of a jet of water, with a velocity proportioned to the sailing of the vessel. This contrivance alone is sufficient to prove that the author is a lover of *simplicity*. The other logs are highly deserving of attention. They combine great ingenuity of contrivance, with great diversity in the practical application.

The third tract in the work is upon marine surveying.

The second consideration in this tract is a simplification of the mode whereby to protract for the relative position of any station, by means of two angles formed by three objects whose position and distance with respect to each other, have been previously determined, and placed upon

the paper intended for the rough survey. For the want of such simplification, this most valuable problem to the land and more particularly the marine surveyor, has hitherto been practised only by a few; but we trust the light now thrown upon this problem by the author, will cause it to be more generally practised.

The tract concludes with the following remarks :

'The reflecting seaman must ever consider it a melancholy circumstance, that the art of hydrography, which so materially regards the lives of sailors, and the safety of commerce, should still remain so perfectly neglected, in this leading maritime country. At the present day it may be said, that we have attained only a rough outline of the terraqueous globe. This may very well serve the purposes of the closet; but the navigator, who, not mentally, but absolutely visits each part of the earth, requires both detail and correctness of position, in the representation of coasts and harbours. How comfortable for him would it be, if, in the time of imminent danger, he was fortunately possessed of the pilotage of some leeward port! How gladly would he then seek shelter from the impending danger! But he is, unhappily, without the means of information:—and correct surveys, and correct tables of latitude and longitude, are not to be expected until hydrography and navigation be encouraged and protected by the state.

'To guard the life of the seaman, and to give safety to commerce, is the bounden duty of every nation dependent on navigation for its support. Schools should be established, under the authority of a board of scientific men and seamen, wherein the science of hydrography and navigation should be taught; and were these schools, or colleges, founded on the shores of intricate harbours, it would allow the students the means of acquiring much practical information, whereby the more ingenious would become fit to conduct hydrographical surveys, and might be termed hydrographers; while the generality would be capable of attending to the navigation of ships, under the term of navigators, and be fit persons to supply the office alluded to in page 107.

'The same scientific board should attend also to the equipment of vessels, on a plan suited to marine-surveying, and to the dispatching them with hydrographers to explore and survey, first, the more frequented, and afterwards the uttermost, parts of the globe;—and the surveys thus obtained should be published under the authority of such board. A proceeding to this effect would, in time, do away the nefarious practice of manufacturing sea charts by means of plagiarism, hear-say and fancy. These, certainly, by their external neatness recommend them to a purchaser:—but, lo! in the sequel, they betray their owner,—they bewilder, and lead him to shipwreck and destruction!'

The fourth tract describes an optical instrument invented by the author, which is applicable to the mensuration of

distances, by simply taking one angle, without the interposition of a measured base upon the ground.

The fifth tract explains a mode whereby the height of a vessel's mast may be applied as a base line to determine the distances of objects which are situated within the circle of the sensible horizon.

We have been highly gratified by the perusal of these tracts, which are written in a plain and unaffected style. They evince a mind capable of embodying mathematical truth in the most practical form; they contain much novel information, which is of singular importance to this maritime country, and in short they are admirably adapted to promote the too much neglected sciences—'navigation and hydrography.'

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ART. XIII.—*A short Address to the most Reverend and Honourable William, Lord Primate of all Ireland, recommendatory of some Commutation or Modification of the Tythes of that Country; with a few Remarks on the present State of the Irish Church. By the Rev. H. B. Dudley, Chancellor and Prebendary of Ferns. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1808.*

THIS is a sensible pamphlet; and well deserving the attention of the legislature. Mr. B. Dudley's project for the abolition of tythes in Ireland is as follows:

'Let the *tythes* of Ireland, as well impropriate, as clerical, be accurately valued by commissioners under parliamentary authority, (due consideration being previously taken of all unsettled moduses, and allowance made for the probable change of lands from pasture to tillage) so as to ascertain the existing annual value of the *tythes* of all lands, &c. in each parish or union, to be laid as a rent charge thereon.

'Let these estimates of annual value be calculated into a saleable perpetuity, and be made redeemable by purchase within a time limited, by the respective land-proprietors; and in default thereof, such perpetuity of rent charge to be disposed of by public sale, in like manner as the *land tax* of England has recently been alienated from the crown.

'In any case where the purchase money may not reach the full amount of the estimated value in perpetuity, the same to be made good out of any surplusage arising from other sales of tythes, in which the produce may exceed the commissioners' valuation; or be nationally provided for by the Irish treasury. The amount of all such sales in perpetuity to be appropriated to the purchase of

freehold lands, or lands to become freehold glebe-property, and to be annexed to the church for ever.

‘Wherever sufficient lands cannot conveniently be obtained within the parish or union, other lands to be purchased in any district or barony most contiguous thereto.

‘The rent-charge in lieu of *tythes* to remain upon the lands, and to be levied upon the proprietor, until the commutation for the whole parish, or union, is completed.’—

But would not the conversion of *tythes* into landed estates have the mischievous effect of throwing so much land into mortmain—a species of tenure, which is in general highly unfavourable to agricultural improvement? Would it not tend to produce an unfavourable charge in the character of the clergy? Would not the instructor of the people be merged in the cultivator of the soil? But still we think Mr. B. Dudley’s remarks on the subject highly deserving of attention. At any rate they establish this fact, that *some alteration* in the present *tything* system of *Ireland* is essential to the property of the establishment, to the harmony of the people, and the safety of the state. We shall not venture to suggest any plan in lieu of that which has been proposed by Mr. B. Dudley; but we hope that the wisdom of the legislature will ere long provide a remedy, which without diminishing the income of the clergy, will effectually appease those animosities which the collection of *tythes* at present foment between them and their parishioners, while it communicates to the establishment more external respectability and more internal peace. We are convinced, with the intelligent author of this pamphlet, that the present mode of collecting the ecclesiastical revenue, is *destructive of the moral ends for which it was designed*; and that whatever alteration the legislature may think it wise to introduce, it can hardly fail of containing less evils than the present mode. We know that there are some persons who are still advocates for the *divine right* of *tythes*, and who will be eager to exclaim against any change in that ancient mode of providing for the clergy as a sacrilegious violation. But though we are friends, and warm friends, to an ecclesiastical establishment, *as a moral institution*, we think that it owes its origin to the *will of the state*; consequently, that the legislature may, without any profanation of what is sacred, or any dereliction of what is just, make such alterations in the property, in the doctrine, discipline, and constitution of the church, as are deemed most conducive to the public good, and best accommodated to the varying circumstances of the times. If the ecclesiastical system may not be modified by the acts of the legislature,



what guilt must attach to the legislature of former times? Has not the property of the church been successively enjoyed by Catholic and Protestant, by Calvinist and Arminian?

The reasons which Mr. B. Dudley offers for the adoption of his plan are these:

I. Because it goes the necessary length of setting this perplexing question of *tythes* at rest for ever.

II. Because, unlike the practical operation of other modes, it leaves no opening for pecuniary litigation, the most baneful of all disputes between the clergy, and their parishioners.

III. Because it would be found a measure of facility in *Ireland*, though not in *England*; the former country having extensive tracts of land at all times applicable to such commutation: and because such an appropriation would afford further national advantage, by opening a new and extensive source of industry, and agricultural improvement.

IV. Because it would render the clergy of the established church, and their parishioners, respectably independent of each other; enabling the one to enjoy their revenues without deterioration, and relieving the other from the merciless visitations of middlemen and their dependents.—

—It would afford to the suggester of this slight project, and to all who wish the prosperity of *Ireland*, very sincere satisfaction to see a more effectual and practical mode pointed out, and speedily adopted. Doubts have been started, whether, under any modification, the humble occupier of the soil would not soon be deprived of any advantage resulting from it, by a more than proportionate rise of his rent. But no such speculations will influence the minds of those who rightly feel it, either as a moral obligation to aid in the relief of a distressed country, or as a religious duty to exonerate the church from the charge of a people's oppression. The late bishop of *Cloyne*, although the stern opposer of any commutation of *tythes*, admits under all his zeal for their inviolability, that "the *salus populi* must be the *suprema lex*; neither," says he, "do I question the right of the legislature to make alterations: but until an alteration shall have been made by the supreme authority, neither the Crown, nor one of the Houses of Parliament, much less any fellow subject, can deprive the clergyman of his right, which is a freehold." No one would be unreasonable enough to assert, or suppose, that any other short of a complete legislative power could constitutionally effect such an alteration. It is to this high and competent authority alone that the inhabitants of *Ireland* are now about to sue for some interposition, that may equitably modify the present system of *tythes*; and every liberal mind will join in the general solicitude for success to the prayer of their petition. Whatever the enemies of their country may advance for the purposes of delusion, relief from the harassing system of *tythes*, and the increasing pressure of *exorbitant rents*, is the real emancipation on which the hearts of the Irish people are principally fixed.

ART. XIV.—*The State of Britain abroad and at home, in the eventful Year 1808. By an Englishman of no Party.*

IN p. 4, the author says, 'An upstart, springing as it were from the bosom of oblivion, HAS BEEN DECREED BY THE WISDOM OF OMNIPOTENCE, to scourge the iniquities of mankind.' This language is very generally held respecting Buonaparte. We have heard it employed even by *pious* ministerialists. But it appears to us to be dangerous and absurd. For if Buonaparte be thus appointed to scourge the nations by the *wisdom of Omnipotence*, to fight against him, must be to fight against God. If we allow the principle, we cannot logically deny the consequences. If Buonaparte be instrumental in executing the wise and beneficent purposes of Providence, we ought to rejoice at his successes, to exult over the downfall of his enemies, to applaud the measures of his government, and in short to submit not only without reluctance but with perfect submission to his tyrannic sway. But those, who, like some sects of christians, allow two principles, which are supposed to have an almost equal influence in human affairs, may with much more cogency of argument, ascribe the actions of Buonaparte, to the malicious instigation of the devil, than to the wise and beneficent direction of the Deity. But we think that kings and princes are free agents as well as other individuals; and consequently that the actions of Buonaparte are as little subject to any supernatural influence as those of mere private individuals. Ambition is his ruling passion,—propitious circumstances have enabled him to gratify that passion in a way that no other man ever did. But his success, great as it has been, instead of being ascribed to any miraculous interposition, ought rather to be imputed to the weakness, disunion, treachery, and folly of his opponents. When the enemies of Buonaparte find it impossible to equal his energy in the field, it is very easy, in order to remove the blame from their lamentable imbecility, to call in the agency of some good or some evil spirit to extenuate their own incapacity, and to account for his triumphant superiority. It is not miracles that have made Buonaparte what he is; it is rather a vigour that is never relaxed; a vigilance that never sleeps; a sagacity that suffers no favourable circumstance to escape its observation;—that profits by the errors of its enemies, as much as the craft of its own stratagems, and the ability of its own com-

binations,—a force of mind that rather makes opportunities than waits for their arrival,—a rapidity in execution, that like lightning oppresses his foes while they are merged in luxury or slumbering in indolence; and in short an intellectual capacity that instantly seizes, and as instantly carries into effect, all the possibilities of exertion. Such is Buonaparte! Let his enemies rival him in these great qualities, and then if they cannot wither his laurels, they will at least put a stop to the farther increase of his domination; Μη γὰρ αἱ θεοὶ νομίζουσι ἐνέσθαι τὰ παρόντα πεπληγμένα πράγματα ἀδύνατα.

We have not met with much novelty of remark in the present performance, but the author appears to be actuated by good intentions; and where we see such intentions, we think that they go a great way towards compensating the defect of intellectual penetration.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### RELIGION.

ART. 15.—*A Commentary upon the last Vision of the Prophet Daniel, contained in the 10th, 11th and 12th Chapters, being a Sequel to the Commentary on the Seventy Weeks; and completing the Author's Explanation of the Prophecies of Daniel. By the Rev. John Martin Butt, late Student of Christ Church London. Hatchard. 1808.*

WE wish that divines, who are appointed by the state to be the moral instructors of the people, would confine their attention to the practical duties of life, instead of endeavouring to unravel mysteries which are involved in endless perplexity; and concerning which their ideas are necessarily vague, indeterminate and absurd. As long as the expositor can accommodate the imagery or the diction of the prophetic scriptures to recent occurrences, or can adapt them to the sordid views of some sect in the church or some faction in the state, he thinks that he may glory in the applause of pious credulity, and he exclaims to all who will not listen with unconditional submis-

sion to his arbitrary explanations, *Procul, o procul este profani!* The use of clear and determinate expressions is not more wanting in science than in theology; for if we examine the most prolific causes of dispute among divines we shall find that they have principally centered in dark and equivocal expressions. A prophecy which has been *actually* fulfilled may be easily explained, for the events furnish an irrefragable solution, but a prophecy, which has not yet had its completion, cannot be accurately solved without *the aid of inspiration*. Have our modern prophecy-mongers this aid? If not they can be regarded only as blind leaders of the blind.

ART. 16.—*Remarks on the Dangers which threaten the Established Religion; and on the Means of averting them, in a Letter to Right Hon. Spencer Perceval, M.P. Chancellor of his Majesty's Exchequer. By Edward Pearson, B.D. Rector of Rempstone, Nottinghamshire. Hatchard, 3s. 6d. 1807.*

THOUGH there are some parts of this publication to which we object, yet there are more which we approve. Many of the observations discover a clear and discriminating mind. We do not agree with Mr. Pearson that "*the test and corporation acts are necessary defences of the established religion.*" If a religious system cannot be defended without hypocrisy, prevarication, and perjury we must say that it is not worth defending. But we defy Mr. Pearson or any other friend of *the test and corporation acts*, to prove what other effects they produce except such as we have mentioned. By the test and corporation acts the most sacred forms of religion are prostituted to the vilest purposes; and in this case the means, cannot sanctify the end; nor does the end reflect any thing but disgrace upon the means. We are friends to an ecclesiastical establishment as a moral institution; but such an institution will not afford any encouragement to falsehood and insincerity. We admire, we venerate religion as an engine of good; that is of truth, of freedom, and humanity; but religion converted into an instrument of evil,—of fraud, cruelty, and oppression is an object of our utter abomination. In our view of the subject *religious truth and political utility are never at variance*; and we think that any state, in which an ecclesiastical establishment is found, will best consult its permanence, by considering the truth of the established doctrine as the best pledge for the security and usefulness of the establishment. In a country like this, where all truths of all descriptions are freely canvassed, and where the torch of reason is continually held up to discover the serpentine sinuosities of error,—the unscriptural falsehoods and irrational absurdities, which are mingled with the religious tenets of the establishment, cannot long remain concealed. But the effect of such disclosure must naturally be mischievous to the establishment; for though credulity and ignorance may cherish falsehood and absurdity, yet no persons ever respect or love what they know to

be contrary to reason and to truth. Hence we discern the necessity of an establishment the doctrine of which is founded on that basis of rationality and truth, which all discussion must tend rather to strengthen than to shake. A religious establishment like that of this country, which was formed in times, that were comparatively barbarous, when the scriptures were very imperfectly understood, when the light of biblical criticism was buried under the cloudy jargon of the schools, must need successive improvements and alterations in order to enable it to keep pace with the progress of scriptural knowledge, and to command in an enlightened age the approbation which it received in a period of ignorance and superstition. But notwithstanding the period of ignorance and superstition in which the liturgy and articles of the church of England were composed, the many irrational, idolatrous and unscriptural tenets which they contain have been suffered to remain to the present day in the same state in which they appeared 200 years ago. Thus, for want of those successive improvements of which all human institutions are susceptible, the tenets which are maintained in the liturgy of the church ARE UTTERLY AT VARIANCE WITH THE TENETS OF ALL ITS MINISTERS, WHO HAVE ANY PRETENSIONS TO BIBLICAL KNOWLEDGE, OR WHO ARE CRITICALLY ACQUAINTED WITH THE CHRISTIAN SCRIPTURES.—But Mr. Pearson well remarks that ‘an establishment does not *lightly* admit of alterations, but that there is nothing in its nature which necessarily precludes them; a religious establishment no more precludes alterations in the ecclesiastical code of laws than a civil establishment precludes alterations in its civil code.’ Nay in the preface to the liturgy it is said that ‘the forms of divine worship, being things in their own nature indifferent and alterable, it is but reasonable that such changes and alterations should be made therein from time to time as seem either necessary or expedient.’ Had this principle of gradual improvement, which is consecrated in the constitution of the establishment, been followed in the practice, we should at present have had a liturgy formed on a more scriptural model: in which every prayer would have been copied from that of Christ; in which no controverted doctrines, no non-essential points would have been admitted, and which would thus have dissipated all sectarian antipathies and united all christians of all denominations in the bonds of charity and truth. The present work of Mr. Pearson proves him in many particulars to be a friend to what is at present so much wanted, an *ecclesiastical reformation*; and though many of his ideas on this subject may be adverse to our own, yet we heartily recommend the perusal of his remarks.

ART. 17.—*Letter to the King on the State of the established Church of England.* 1s. 6d. Stockdale. 1808.

THE author of this pamphlet seems anxious to introduce the fine arts and particularly the harmonies of music into the service of



the establishment. But he mentions a stratagem to have been practised by some notable nonconformists, which perhaps might be imitated with considerable effect by the sons of the church in order to increase the numbers of the congregation. At Newbury in Berkshire a preacher attached to the interest of the *saints*, finding his audience too small to gratify his spiritual ambition, thought of the following expedient to remedy the defect. He provided a large piece of cold meat, on which persons coming from a distance were requested to dine. This *bait* is said to have been greedily swallowed by those for whose mouths it was designed. Now, in addition to those incentives which the writer of this letter proposes to mingle in the service of the church, might he not advise a cold round of beef to be placed in the vestry and administered in fair and honest slices to the hungry stomachs of all the men, women, and children who could remember the text?

ART. 18.—*The Voice of Truth, or Proofs of the divine Origin of Scripture.* 12mo. 2s. Hatchard. 1807.

IN addition to the usual stock of arguments brought forward to prove the divine origin of scripture, the author has thought proper to trace some of those remains of original tradition, which are to be found among the heathen nations, relative to the mysterious doctrine of a Trinity; but he is very far from having proved that that doctrine has any connection with revealed truth, or is at all supported by the divine authority of the Scriptures. In endeavouring to support this doctrine by the mythology of the Greeks or the fictions of the Hindoos, the author has rather enervated than energized his 'Voice of Truth.'

ART. 19.—*Posthumous Essays by Mr. Abraham Booth; to which is annexed his Confession of Faith, delivered at his Ordination in Goodman's Fields, February 16th, 1769.* 12mo. 2s. 6d. Button. 1808.

DAVID Garrick formerly acted in Goodman's fields, so did Abraham Booth; Booth however was not of the house and lineage of David; being a terrible ranter.

## POLITICS.

ART. 20.—*A Discourse upon the true Character of our late Proceedings in the Baltic, comprising a few cursory Remarks upon his Majesty's Declarations of the 25th September and 18th December 1807. The Second Edition. By the Author of Cursory Remarks, and of the Appeal to the People on the Necessity of restoring the Spanish Treasure Ships.* 8vo. 5s. Maxwell and Wilson. 1808.

WE have always thought that the late aggression on Denmark

was not only highly unjustifiable in point of morals, but of policy. The mere sordid calculations of political avarice were against the measure. *Our loss has been greater than our gain.* The injustice of those who advised this nefarious transaction has, in a few short weeks, caused us to lose all our former reputation, and to 'become the scorn, the hatred and the bye-word of the world.' And what have we obtained as a compensation for this extremity of disgrace? Among the ships of the line which we have stolen from the Danes, there are 'only three fit for sea, and these are fit only for press ships; hulks, or prison ships. They are all fastened with iron, and if they are worthy to be repaired for our service, they must be fastened with copper bolts; and it is apprehended, that their beams will not support them, and the weight placed upon the decks in our service will force these beams downwards, crushing the whole interior of the ships into the holds. The best of these three, *the Crown Prince*, has been surveyed, and I have no hesitation in stating, that she is declared by the officers of the King's yards, to be worth for sale not more than eight pounds per ton; and it is a melancholy truth, that we pay four times that sum for the construction of our own, or thirty-two pounds per ton—that is the contract price with the navy board. These three ships, then, which were our most imminent and *immediate* danger, are not equal to more than three fourths of one of our own; and if Bonaparte had attempted to invade England or Ireland with them, the imminent and *immediate* danger had been his, and not ours.

'As to the rest of the ships, if, for a motive I am about to assign, they are repaired at all, they will be liable to the same objections, (but more forcible) and the whole strength of three of the royal yards during six months (every other work being suspended) will be hardly equal to veneer and vamp them up for the *effect* proposed.

'Aye, but the timber and the stores! why if our apprehension was from these, and their enormous bulk and magnitude, it is extraordinary that so much of the former should have been already sold, as useless, at Woolwich: it is true, a stop has been put to the sale, because it may be wanted for shew—Danish prize, Danish plunder, sounds well in certain ears; but of Holstein timber, the Navy Board have accurate, and some of them ocular knowledge.—I myself know something of it, and more belonging to it; quite enough, however, to say, that the Admiralty which shall embark British seamen upon these spongy boards, must be held practically answerable for the consequences.' This is an excellent pamphlet.

ART. 21.—*The Curse of Popery and Popish Princes to the civil Government and Protestant Church of England, demonstrated from the Debates of Parliament in 1680, relating to the Bill of Exclusion of the Duke of York, with an Introduction shewing the Progress of Popery, from the Reformation to the present Time.* 8vo. 6s. London, printed for John Baker, 1716, reprinted in 1807; and sold by J. White.

THESE debates were occasioned by a bill which was introduced into the house of commons in the year 1680 for the purpose of ex-

cluding James Duke of York, who had embraced the popish religion from his succession to the throne. The bill was supported by William Lord Russell, Sir Henry Capel, Colonel Silas Titus, Sir Francis Winnington, Sir William Jones and all the then most steady friends to civil and religious liberty. The arguments which they used would have convinced us *if we had been living at that time*; but we do not agree with the worthy and learned editor that they are *applicable to the present period*. **POPERY IS NO LONGER NOW WHAT IT WAS THEN.** It has changed its nature if it has not parted with its name. A few bigots may still be left among the members of the Romish Communion (and what communion is altogether free from bigotry?) but they are but few, compared with the thousands and tens of thousands in whom the infuriated zeal of their popish ancestors has either sunk into a languid indifference or been converted into an enlightened charity. We believe that Catholics are not more than Protestants the friends of arbitrary power; the infallibility of the pope is no more an article in the creed of the modern papist, than the divine right of kings is in that of the modern Tories. During the last century the intellectual culture of the papist cannot be supposed to have been entirely suspended while that of the protestants has been so generally diffused. The sun of rational illumination has not dawned on the church of England without shedding some beams of light on the church of Rome. The sentiments of intolerance have been gradually weakened both in protestants and papists; and though it is not often that the conduct of Bonaparte can be recommended to our imitation, yet we think that the government of Great Britain might safely follow the example of that of France *in making no political distinction between Catholic and Protestant*. The debates, which are here republished, offer many specimens of nervous eloquence; or, in other words of good sense forcibly expressed. The expressions, which are used by some of the speakers, are characterised by a bluntness which mark the plain unsophisticated spirit of old English liberty. Thus Mr. William Harboord says; Mr. Speaker, Sir, *I think we shall do ill to be mealy-mouthed when our throats are in such danger; therefore I will not be afraid to speak out, when speaking plain English is necessary to save our king and country*. We wish that some of our modern orators would imitate this good old senator not only in his plain English but in speaking to the purpose; which is a point that seems very little understood. Sir Thomas Player commences his speech with an observation, which we hope contains nothing prophetic of times posterior to his own. Mr. Speaker, Sir, *I have read in Scripture of one man dying for a nation, but never of three nations dying for one man; which is like to be our case*. King Charles the second rejected the bill for the exclusion of the Duke; and dissolved the parliament. The following sentence may serve as a specimen of the spirit with which the introduction to these debates is written, 'For this glorious cause,' (his opposition to the arbitrary measures of the court) 'the great Lord Russell fell pursued by execrable villains and unsated malice, a drop of whose blood was more valuable than the whole race of tyrants from the expulsion of Tarquin to the LAST ABDICATION.'

- ART. 22.—*A new System of Politics ; or Sons against Fathers. Dedicated to the Right Hon. Lord Holland. Ridgway. 8vo. 1s. 1808.*

THIS writer, in a vein of irony, but with much good sense exposes some of the erroneous notions of our modern statesmen, which are in palpable opposition to reason, to justice and to policy.

- ART. 23.—*Education of the lower Orders ; a second Letter to Samuel Whitbread, Esq. M. P. containing Observations on his Bill for the Establishment of Parochial Schools in South Britain ; also Supplementary Observations on the Religious Systems maintained by the Monthly and Critical Reviewers, in their Strictures on the Author's first Letter to Mr. Whitbread. By John Bowles, Esq. 3s. 6d. Stockdale. 1808.*

ECCE iterum Crispinus ! Lo ! again appeareth, dressed in white paper, plentifully daubed over from head to foot, with printer's ink, the redoubted John Bowles ! author of no less than thirty pamphlets ; which any of our readers, who wishes for a treat of profound dulness unenlivened by a single ray of intellectual light, may purchase at his grocer's for five farthings a pound.

- ART. 24.—*A Letter on the Nature, Extent, and Management of Poor Rates in Scotland ; with a Review of the Controversy respecting the Abolition of the Poor Laws. 8vo. Harding. 1807.*

IN this pamphlet instead of the information which is promised in the title on the *nature, extent, and management* of the *poor rates* in Scotland we find an attempt to refute some of the political generalities of Mr. Malthus and other writers. The author appears to be a strenuous advocate for the support of the poor by a fixed rate rather than by voluntary contributions.

- ART. 25.—*An Address to the Nobility and Gentry of the Church of Ireland, as by Law established ; explaining the real Causes of the Commotions and Insurrections in the Southern Part of this Kingdom respecting Tythes ; and the real Motives and Designs of the Projectors and Abettors of those Commotions and Insurrections : and containing a candid Enquiry into the Practicability of substituting any other Mode of Subsistence and Maintenance for the Clergy, of the Church established, consistent with the Principles of Reason and Justice in the Place of Tythes. By Theophilus. Third Edition with Additions. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1808.*

THIS is a republication of a tract that appeared in Ireland in 1786, and was designed to counteract the popular objections against

tythes, which the writer thinks *the best mode of providing for the clergy*. We cannot here afford space to enumerate his arguments ; nor do we think that they merit much attention at the present day. We must however notice an assertion of the editor '*that the present cry against tythes in Ireland is raised by the mongrel pack of hungry curs of the late discarded English administration.*' This insinuates that the last administration had projected the abolition of tythes only in order to put so much money into the pockets of their friends ; or, as he very politically terms it, to feed a pack of hungry curs ; we do not know that the late ministers designed any alteration in the ecclesiastical system ; but if they had, we are well convinced that the public good rather than the interest of any particular individuals (or, if the writer pleases, of any hungry curs) would have guided them in the execution.

ART. 26.—*The Duty of the People in electing Members to Parliament considered ; being a warning Address to the Inhabitants of Shrewsbury, and the Country at large. By the Author of a Review of the Conduct of the Hon. H. G. Bennett and his Friends.* 8vo. Wood. Shrewsbury.

WRITTEN with a view to infuse the spirit of liberty and independence into the electors of Shrewsbury ; and containing many sentiments, which indicates a liberal and enlightened mind.

#### LAW.

ART. 27.—*Information and Remarks on the present State of the Debtor and Creditor Laws. By a Barrister.* 8vo. Symonds. 1808.

WE can conceive many subjects which a Barrister may publicly discuss without giving his name to the world ; and which he may be willing to leave with such sanction only as they may receive from professional weight and authority. But we can conceive no subject on which any writer can profess himself a member of that learned profession, who is not so, for the purpose of obtaining a false credit with the public. Though this tract purports to come from a *Barrister*, we can confidently affirm from *internal evidence*, that *the robe* in the present instance is merely assumed. The '*information*' is in many particulars incorrect, and the remarks for the most part trite and common-place. No gentleman at the bar could be so ignorant as to affirm that 'in almost every offence, of a penal nature, habitual depravity, or confirmed criminality is necessary to complete conviction ; but in cases of debt, imprisonment generally accompanies the first presumed offence, or alleged culpability of a man who has previously lived in honour, and unimpaired credit. Where did this writer learn that proof of habitual depravity was necessary in order to complete conviction in penal cases ?' The law as laid down in the following passage, is to us perfectly unintelligible : 'An ideal value upon the property of lodgers who have absconded, will always support the arrest of the housekeeper, if the lodger will



positively make affidavit, that he has valuable papers in possession of his landlord; and in many instances the lodger has been encouraged, by some low retainers of the profession of the law, to adopt this mode of arrest, to harass the landlord, who, not being able to procure bail for the demand falsely sworn to, has been necessitated to relinquish his own just claim, and to restore the nominal property, rather than be subject to the horrors of imprisonment, or engage in expensive and fruitless litigation.'

This is a specimen of the modern art of book-making. The manufacture is certainly not such as should make us wish success to the trade.

### POETRY.

ART. 28.—*The Water-King's Levee; or the Gala of the Lake. A Sequel to 'the Peacock at Home.' For Children of all Ages and Sizes. With appropriate Engravings. Lillip. 4to. Lindsell. 1808.*

WHEN grave historians, politicians, and senators become surveyors for the literary taste of children, it becomes also the province of a reviewer to notice their publications. But this admission opens the door to so new and extensive a department of criticism that we fear our present limits are inadequate to the consequences of the innovation. We have already had conversations with our brethren in trade respecting the establishment of a Lilliputian Review; and some among us have suggested the project of a second appendix to be devoted exclusively to the purpose now under consideration; but we have hitherto concluded no definitive arrangement.

In the mean time we cannot deny ourselves the pleasure of noticing one or two out of the immense shoal of publications produced by the 'Grasshopper's Feast' which are entitled to somewhat more than Lilliputian distinction.

The authoress of 'the Peacock at Home,' not only vastly transcended her original, but has hitherto stood unrivalled in the list of imitators. The author of 'the Water-King's Levee' (we pronounce him to be a gentleman from the gallantry of his compliments to the above-mentioned lady) is the only candidate we have heard of who can pretend to dispute the palm; and, since he expressly waves his pretensions, it does not become us to support them.

The following are the most conspicuous among the attendants at his aquatic majesty's levee in the lake:

'First, the chancellor PIGE, the dread fish of the law,  
For the fry of all streams know the length of his jaw,  
Proceeds by himself, as a chancellor shou'd,  
The autocrat judge of the rights of the flood;  
While in distance respectful, before him, the DACE  
Bears his badge of distinction and office, the mace;

And his trusty train bearer, sticks close to his back,  
 A thorough-paced lawyer, the sharp-sighted JACK.  
 ' Next, admiral STURGEON, of prowess right mickle,  
 And, like a true sailor, excelling in *pickle*,  
 Just arrived from a cruise, takes a peep from *the Nore*,  
 Makes his bow, sans façon,—and weighs anchor once more.  
 ' In mail of pure argent, but lately come home,  
 The SALMON his spirit declares by his foam  
 And tho' loyal and true,—yet no cringer or pimp,  
 But a soldier of honour—and hating a *crimp*,  
 And impatient to show his politeness and zeal,  
 Takes a leap from the Tweed, with his aid-de-camp Peele.

A royal levee is not a situation of much entertainment—the variety of a birth-day ode occasionally enlivens it; and of that variety our author has judiciously availed himself—afterwards the wisest among the scaly brotherhood fall to talking politics; and Mr. Cobbett will certainly be gratified to find by the conclusion that his declamations, however little attended to on our upper earth, have had due weight among his friends the fishes.

' Meantime, as the laureat, the musical TOAD,  
 The only aquatick that sings, croaked the ode,  
 (But he sang to himself, as the rest could not boast  
 That *their ears* were much nicer than those of a post.)  
 \* \* \* A cabinet followed on matters of state,  
 And the catholic claims were the point of debate,  
 (For, that fish are all catholic surely you know,  
 In *body* and *mind*, and in *liver* and *roe*?  
 And no year by their canons was ever yet spent,  
 Without the most rigid observance of *lent*.)  
 The PIKE calmly owned that ' he cordially hated  
 To see others thus persecuted and *baited*!  
 The SALMON lamented ' *that* obstinate will  
 Which preferred *troubled waters* to those that were still.'  
 And, ' as for my part' quoth the TROUT, ' may I die  
 If in matters of conscience I'd injure a fly!  
 ' He's but a political quack, at the best,'  
 Cried others, ' who'd physick one's soul by a *test*,  
 And if such *empyrics* still govern by stealth,  
 The nation's undone both in vigour and health.'  
 While some with more warmth unreservedly urg'd,  
 ' That the whole constitution should strictly be purg'd;  
 ' For *of ins* and of *outs* the only one wish is  
 To pilfer the loaves and to *plunder the fishes*.'

We have only one serious ground of complaint against the lady of Peacock, and the knight of the Lake; that they waste, on nonsense for children, talents which may be much more worthily employed in amusing men and women.

ART. 29.—*Love's Lyrics, or Cupid's Carnival, original and translated. By J. Scott Byerly, Esq. 12mo. 7s. Chapple. 1807.*

SOME of these Lyrics exhibit such a kind of carnival as the profligate may enjoy in a brothel. The author's dullness, however, furnishes a very efficacious antidote to his indecency.

ART. 30.—*A Poetical Cock turned, and 460 Rhymes let out thereat, being an Attempt at English Verse making; or a Piece of Moral Conversation, wherein Vice is roundly claw'd off, between a very great Lord and a very little Poet. Song the first. A second Song will follow unless the Critics break the Poet's Elbows, and spoil his singing. By Thomas Equinox. 8vo. 1s. Jordan and Maxwell. 1806.*

ART. 31.—*More Conversation. An ecclesiastical Sinapism, or Snarls and Counter-snarls between a Moral Poet, and his Grace the good Duke Humphrey. By Thomas Equinox. 8vo. 1s. Jordan and Maxwell. 1807.*

ART. 32.—*The most vicious Principles of the most vicious Characters in the Kingdom, defended on the Grounds of moral Expediency; in a Dialogue between a Moral Poet and the good Duke Humphrey. By Thomas Equinox. 8vo. 1s. Jordan and Maxwell. 1807.*

*HABENT sua fata libelli*; condemned, as a whimsical satirist tells us, for the bottoms of patty-pans, or reserved for some still more ignoble destination.

## MEDICINE.

ART. 33.—*Remarks on the Reform of the Pharmaceutical Nomenclature; and particularly on that adopted by the Edinburgh College; read before the Liverpool Medical Society. By John Bostock, M.D. late President of the Edinburgh Medical Society: Member of the London Medical and Chirurgical Society, of the Liverpool Medical Society, &c. &c.*

EVERY innovation has its inconveniences, and every reform will meet with resistance from numbers, particularly of those who, in matters of science are unwilling and perhaps unable to learn and to unlearn. That some change is necessary in pharmaceutical nomenclature is sufficiently evident, and Dr. Bostock himself concedes, that the question is one rather of prudence and discretion, than in which there can be any radical difference of opinion. Whether the Edinburgh college have not pushed the love of system too far in the last edition of their Pharmacopœia may well certainly admit of a question. 'Out of two hundred and twenty articles,' Dr. Bostock observes, 'of which the *materia medica* consists, twenty-four only bear the same denomination as in the previous of 1792, and out of two hundred and eighty-five titles, of preparations and compounds, there are

only sixty-two of the old names retained.' Dr. B. has taken a regular survey of many of the alterations introduced, and his strictures are deserving of attention. Not that we think his own criticisms to be always correct. The corrosive sublimate, he says, p. 46, constitutes an oxymuriate; calomel a muriate of mercury. Corrosive sublimate is undoubtedly a common muriate; though formed by putting mercury in oxymuriatic acid, the excess of oxygen is wholly employed in oxydizing the mercury: Calomel is either a sub-muriate or perhaps more correctly still, a common muriate, in which the metal is in an inferior degree of oxydizement.

### MISCELLANIES.

ART. 34.—*The Constable's Assistant; being a Compendium of the Duties and Powers of Constables and other Peace Officers; chiefly as they relate to the apprehending of Offenders, and laying Information before Magistrates. By the Society for the Suppression of Vice.* 1s. Rivington. 1808.

WE perfectly agree with Mr. Const in his opinion respecting the present publication. 'It contains sufficient instruction for the peace officer to act with advantage to the community and with safety to himself; his duty is strongly and clearly marked; and if he acts in conformity to the directions herein contained, it must materially tend to the improvement of the morals and consequently to the ultimate comfort of those who may be affected by the coercion it promotes.'

ART. 35.—*The French Alphabet, or an Explanation of the Mechanism of the Organs in Motion in the Act of pronouncing the French Letters, preceded by a preliminary Discourse, containing some Observations on the Art of teaching Languages, to which is added a Dictionary of the Homonymous Words which are to be found in that Language. Dedicated by Permission, to the Right Hon. Lady Ellenborough. By H. Pannier, Professor of the French and Latin Languages.* 8vo. Dulau and Co. Soho Square.

WE do not think that the niceties of the French pronunciation can be taught by rule; and, though we do not deny to M. Pannier the praise of ingenuity, we think that the mechanical action of the vocal organs will not readily be brought into conformity with the critical rigor of his precepts.

ART. 36.—*An Essay on the Character and Influence of the Stage, on Morals and Happiness. By John Styles.* 8vo. Williams and Smith. 1807.

IT is really very much to be regretted that such a writer as Mr. Styles cannot occupy his time more profitably than by repeating the

old trite and common-place declamations against the theatres, without interweaving even a single original observation that might entitle him to the attention of the public. He cannot even write his title-page with correctness. "An Essay on the Character and Influence of the Stage on Morals and Happiness." What is the meaning of the *Character of the Stage on Morals*\*? but what can we expect in these days, when the vanity even of the lowest mechanic is seldom satisfied till he either mounts to the pulpit, or makes an excursion to the press. This essay adopts for its motto, the line from Dr. Young.

' Shall truth be silent because Folly frowns?'

Certainly not. But most heartily we wish that *Folly* would be silent when *Truth* frowns, and that the dull tribe of plagiarists to which this writer belongs would look out for some more useful employment than that of book-making.

ART. 37.—*An Appeal of an injured Individual to the British Nation, on the arbitrary and inquisitorial Consequences of the Tax on Income, commonly called the Property Tax, and particularly to the Manner it is assessed on Professions, Trades, and small Incomes.* By Charles Rivers, Solicitor, Basing Lane, Bread Street Cheapside. Svo. Richardson. 1808.

IT is perhaps hardly possible that a tax of the nature here referred to can be collected in an extensive and opulent community without some instances of individual oppression: we are not very ardent admirers of the principles of this tax, but appeals from the irregular assessment of it do not properly come within the jurisdiction of our court.

ART. 38.—*Advice on the due Management of our Income, on the Principles of Economy.* Hatchard. 1808.

WE are truly thankful for all advice which respects the economic management of our income; as we reviewers who by no means wallow in wealth are frequently puzzled to bring our disbursements within compass. Unluckily we are not in a condition to profit by the sage admonitions of this writer, as they relate solely to the prudent expenditure of 800*l.* a year, which goes quite beyond our ways and means. If it should fortunately come within that of the reader, this tract may furnish him with some serviceable hints.

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\* The proper title would have been, 'an Essay on the Character of the Stage, and its Influence on Morals and Happiness;' as it stands at present it is nonsense.



**ART. 39.**—*Antiquarian and Topographical Cabinet, containing a Series of elegant Views of the most interesting Objects of Curiosity in Great Britain, accompanied with Letter-press Descriptions. Vols. I, II. 1l. 10s. 8vo. Clarke, New Bond Street.*

TWO volumes of this elegant little work having made their appearance, we have great pleasure in announcing its merits to the public. The objects are generally well selected, and the engravings, with very few exceptions, attain what we conceive to be a great difficulty—the union of forcible and picturesque effect with great clearness and truth of delineation. By the advertisement we are informed that Messrs. Storer and Greig are the proprietors; and it is perhaps from the circumstance of their being (with very little assistance,) the engravers also, that the work is published at so cheap a rate; the two volumes, now completed, contain one hundred plates, and twelve sheets of letter-press, written in a clear and intelligible style.

In justice to the editors, we must not omit to observe that they have more than fulfilled the expectation their earliest numbers excited; as the work advanced additional care seems to have been bestowed on the engravings; most of which we can affirm without exaggeration have never been exceeded, if equalled, on so small a scale.

If they continue their exertions with a determination *always to do their best*, (Sir J. Reynolds's constant rule) there can be little doubt of their meeting with all the encouragement we wish them and they deserve.

We throw out a hint or two for the attention of the editors; it is of much importance to ascertain the exact date of the edifice described, and the part from which the drawing is taken: in the beautiful engraving of Conway Castle for instance, we are left in doubt what portion of it is given in the view. Another suggestion we would offer is, when they engrave after the drawing of another, to procure if possible a large print of the building in question, especially if it be a structure of consequence or notoriety.

They will understand our meaning when we observe that the central tower of York cathedral is in fact nearly double in diameter to either of the western ones. Our good-will induces us to break through a custom in alluding to a number which has appeared since the conclusion of the second volume.

**ART. 40.**—*The second Part of an Introduction to Merchant's Accounts, in which are contained improved Subsidiary Books and Partnership Accounts. By J. Sedger. 12mo. Law. 1808.*

WHEN we observe the vast number of rules which are employed in Mr. Mair's and other publications on the Italian method of Book-keeping for the application of Dr. and Cr. it must be acknowledged that Mr. Sedger deserves the greatest degree of credit for the second part of his *Introduction to Merchant's Accounts*, wherein he has made it appear that the four rules laid down in the first part

are sufficient not only for common occurrences of business, but for such as respect partnership affairs, as well as the management of subsidiary books, and we think that schools and practical book-keepers would do well to adopt his plan.

There is nothing, that more enhances the value of a book upon science, than to find that the instructions and rules it contains are made out by rational deductions: for by this means the memory is assisted by the understanding, and Mr. Sedger seems to have been sensible of this important matter through the whole of his performance.

ART. 41.—*The Case of Lieutenant Hooper of his Majesty's 73rd Regiment; containing a Copy of the Proceedings of the Court martial by which he was tried; and a Narrative of Hardships and Indignities subsequently inflicted on him; with Documents, explanatory Notes and Illustrations of the whole.* Ridgway.

LIEUTENANT Hooper states that in the year 1800, having been some years in the honourable East India company's service, he purchased an ensigncy in his majesty's 73d regiment, at Madras; that on the 21st March 1803 he received a lieutenant's commission; and served with this gallant regiment in most of the arduous enterprises of that time in the interior of India, under the command of Generals Harris, Wellesley, Stuart and Campbell, that this regiment was commanded by lieutenant-colonel Monypenny and returned to Madras 1804. He represents the officers of the 73d as living at that time in the utmost harmony, in unreserved confidence and friendship with each other, till the introduction of one Michael Chamberlain (a relation of Col. Monypenny's) who he says had been something of an appendage to the law at Dublin, but had found it eligible on some account or other to leave his country and take refuge in the honourable company's military service, which he quitted in consequence of having preferred charges against his commanding officer, and which the commander in chief had dismissed as frivolous. Lieutenant Hooper says Mr. Chamberlain had instigated, and been the principal actor in, two general court martials besides his. Lieutenant Hooper also states that Colonel Monypenny made this man adjutant on his entering the regiment; and the next day, to the palpable injury of several ensigns of considerable standing, who were then actually doing duty, preferred him to a lieutenancy. To this Michael Chamberlain the relation and creature of Colonel Monypenny, Lieutenant Hooper attributes his disgrace and the injurious treatment which he states to have suffered. It had been the intention of Lieutenant Hooper to have changed into another regiment, by which means, it is stated, Colonel Monypenny could still further have promoted his relation. But Lieutenant Hooper not finding it convenient to adopt this plan for himself, it seems from his account to have frustrated certain views of the Colonel's and Michael Cham-

berlain's, which induced these gentlemen from that time, according to Lieut. Hooper's statement, to show him every personal ill treatment and insult which rudeness and malice could suggest. He says that having occasion to enquire of this Michael Chamberlain where he could direct a letter to Col. Monypenny, and receiving a rude answer some words ensued on which Mr. Chamberlain put him under arrest, stating as a reason that Lieut. Hooper had called him a scoundrel and a coward; that he was brought to a court martial and convicted by the false evidence of Mr. Chamberlain's servant, who did not understand English, and had before denied having heard Lieut. Hooper make use of such expressions. The indignities and cruelties he represents himself to have suffered on his passage to England are numerous, such as having his sword and sash taken from him by the sergeant, when it is customary (out of delicacy) to have them called for in a gentlemanly manner by the adjutant; that he was withheld from the knowledge of his sentence until the 24th October 1806, the court martial having closed January 1805; that Colonel Monypenny took upon himself the violation of the order of the commander in chief (which was to permit Lieutenant Hooper to be in arrest at large) and kept him in a close arrest; that notwithstanding his ill health from confinement he was kept close prisoner for eight weeks whilst the ship was in harbour, subsisting on the ship's provisions in a small cabin without being allowed to take fresh air; that afterwards he was put down below in a place not more than five feet two inches high, without any door or screen to save him from being exposed to the derision of the ship's company. Here without being able to stand upright he remained till he was put on shore at Greenwich so very ill that on the surgeon's visiting him it was found absolutely necessary (in order he says to prevent death by arbitrary cruelty) that he should be permitted exercise and fresh air. This permission was granted by order from the Horse Guards; and on the 24th October 1806 the finish was given to his unmerited sufferings and possibly to all his future views in life by official information that he was cashiered. Lieutenant Hooper denies the charges brought against him by Mr. Chamberlain in every respect; but the case is too long to allow us to detail any further than by just stating the heads of the unjustifiable treatment he appears to have suffered.

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*List of Articles, which with many others, will appear in the next Number of the Critical Review.*

Fell's Memoirs of Fox.  
 Graham's Essay on Ossian.  
 Mill's Answer to Spence and Cob-  
 bett.  
 Malkin's Scenery, &c. of South  
 Wales.  
 Beattie's Minstrel continued.  
 Hoscoe on the War.  
 Esprilla's Letters from England.

Gunn on the Harp.  
 Haslitt's Eloquence of the British Se-  
 nate.  
 Baring on the Orders in Council.  
 Saunders on Consumption.  
 Miles et Baronettus on National De-  
 fence.  
 Kirk White's Remains.